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ABSTRACT

Consisting of three units, the course model aims to prepare students to address the problem of abuse and/or neglect in the Mexican American community. Unit one focuses on the two major parts of the informal helping system in the Mexican American community, the barrio and the family. Unit two concentrates on the traditional child welfare system and the self-help formal and informal systems. The third unit covers the intervention process used in addressing a family's needs, where there is a potential or verified case of abuse/or neglect. Each unit includes a content outline, unit goal and objectives, list of readings, assessment procedure, classroom and class-related activities, and unit bibliography. Examples of a structured essay, a short essay, and an assignment involving the preparation of a taped student interview are provided. Additional resource materials include three 10-item selected annotated bibliographies; brief list of selected children's health services; glossary of selected legal terms in child abuse and neglect cases; tentative plan for implementation of course content; and information on the 1977 United States Spanish origin population, the struggles of migratory workers, the family, significance of the International Year of the Child to Mexican Americans, and how to define child abuse and neglect. (NQA)

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INTRODUCTION

This course model is a modified version of the model prepared in the summer of 1979. The model was modified to incorporate changes suggested at a special conference/workshop planned for that purpose.

The goal of the model is to prepare students to address the problem of abuse and/or neglect in the Mexican American community. Objectives outlined in the course model are the following: a) To help students define abuse and neglect specific to the Mexican American community; b) To enable students to discuss competently the traditional child welfare system and the natural self-help systems of the barrio, c) To consider and discuss interventive skills, techniques, and knowledge needed to process a child welfare case.

The textbooks selected for the course are Human Services for Mexican-American Children and The Mexican American Family During the Decades of the 1960's and 1970's. They were selected because they specifically address course content and they are at this time the only texts that do so.

Unit One of the course focuses on the informal helping system in the Mexican American community. The two major parts of this informal helping system, the barrio and the family, are the focus of this unit. The unit goal is to instill in the student an awareness and recognition of the structure and function of the Mexican American family and community.

The objectives for this unit are to be accomplished by exposing the students to information, through lecture, films, discussions and field trips, on the urban, rural, and migratory, barrio and the traditional and transitional family.

Appropriate readings from the texts were selected for the unit and optional reading was identified. An example of a structured essay assignment that could be used with the unit was provided. This assignment is constructed to enable the student to discuss the contemporary Mexican American family or child.

Unit Two has as its focus on the traditional child welfare system and the self-help formal and informal system. The traditional system, of which the students are to have some knowledge, is considered as a system organized on four levels, ie., the local, county, state, and national level. Also, the self-help formal, culture-sensitive child welfare programs, and the self-help informal, the family webwork, are to be considered in detail in this unit. The unit goal is to prepare the student to analytically consider the traditional child welfare system and the functional informal/formal self-help networks.

The objectives for the unit are to expose students through lecture, guest speakers, and field trips to information on the traditional child welfare system and the self-help formal and informal barrio system.

Readings were suggested for the unit which focused on the networks to be considered in the unit. There was also provided an example of a short essay assignment that could be used with this unit that requires a critical assessment of a special child welfare service planned with a cultural emphasis.

The focus of the final unit, Unit Three, is the intervention process used in addressing the needs of a family, where there is a potential or verified case of abuse and/or neglect. The use of this unit must definitely be tailored to fit the needs of the students exposed to it. In disciplines other than social work, such as psychology and sociology, the knowledge of the student about intervention will come primarily from courses that explain societal, family, and child functioning, so that the emphasis will not be on practice but on defining the phenomena under study; therefore, this unit must draw on this knowledge to expose the student to the intervention process. The goal of the unit is to reinforce the knowledge and skills currently recognized by the students as interventive by discussing specific child welfare cases of abuse and/or neglect.

The objectives of the unit are to involve the student in a consideration of the interventive process in a practical fashion. The student is expected to read and discuss case examples. Classroom activities call for the viewing of live child welfare interviews by experienced child welfare workers. The student will also role play a live interview and tape an interview for class viewing.

Readings were suggested for the unit that help the students build on their knowledge of the intervention process. The example assignment suggested for the unit calls for the preparation of a taped student interview.

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COURSE MODEL INTRODUCTION

Course Description:

The course will prepare students to address the problem of abuse and/or neglect in the Mexican American Community. It will address abuse and neglect specific to the Mexican American Community. The traditional child welfare and self-help networks are explained and discussed. The barrio and the family as a part of the informal helping system are considered. Finally, the interventive skills, techniques, and knowledge needed to process a child welfare case are discussed in relation to the knowledge gained on Mexican Americans.

Required Text:

Tijerina, Andres (Ed.). Human Services for Mexican American Children. Austin, Texas: University of Texas at Austin Center for Social Work Research, 1979.

Salinas, Rosie Lee Camacho and Imelda Flores. The Mexican American Family During the Decades of the 1960's and 1970's: A Critical Review of the Literature. Austin, Texas: University of Texas at Austin Center for Social Work Research, 1979.

Course Goal:

The preparation of students to address the problem of abuse and/or neglect in the Mexican American Community.

The Course Objectives Are to Consider:

1. Abuse and neglect specific to the Mexican American Community.
2. Traditional child welfare and self-help networks.
3. The barrio and la familia as a part of the informal helping network.
4. The interventive skills, techniques, and knowledge needed to process a child welfare case.

UNIT I
The Informal Helping System

Unit I

Content Outline

I. The Informal Helping Situation

A. The Barrio

1. Urban
2. Rural
3. Migratory

B. The Family

1. Historical aspects
2. The heterogeneous unit
   a. Traditional
   b. Transitional
3. The Child in the Family
   a. Role defined
   b. Present day role

Unit Goal

Instill in the student an awareness and recognition of the structure and function of the Mexican American family and community.

Objectives

This unit will enable the student to:

1. Describe the current Mexican American family using a historical perspective.
2. Define differences between rural, urban, and migratory Mexican American lifestyles.
3. Explain and contrast the many roles ascribed to the Mexican American child in the family.
4. Analytically define what is meant by the term Barrio.
5. State five contributing factors to the Mexican American migrant's poor living conditions and explain their effect.
6. Describe societal characteristics of the Mexican American culture.
7. Explain what is meant by "folklore" or curanderismo and the role each can play in the family.
8. Differentiate between extended and nuclear families.
9. Explain the ways social work professionals can aid migratory families.
10. List and elaborate on two basic needs of migrant children that affect learning and creativity.
11. Define the three main streams traveled by migratory workers.
12. State and briefly define the economic problems faced by migrants and urban or rural Mexican Americans.

Readings

Text: The Mexican-American Family During the Decades of the 1960's and 1970's, pp. 2-31. Human Services for Mexican-American Children, pp. vii - 36.

Optional:

Kagur, Spencer. "Social Motives and Behaviors of Mexican-American and Anglo-American Children." in Chicano Psychology. Edited by Joe L. Martinez. New York: Academic Press, 1977. pp. 45-83.

Assessment Procedure

Two types of assessment suggested, i.e., a short multiple choice objective unit exam and a brief essay assignment. (See example of essay assignment below.)

Example Short Essay Assignment

Instructor:

Due Date:

Purpose:

To facilitate the student's ability to integrate knowledge accumulated through unit activities by writing a narrative that requires the student to draw upon that knowledge in a structured fashion.

Grading of Assignment:

Format and Length:

Students should use a manual which furnishes guidelines or a format for the paper. Footnotes may be collected on the last page in the manner suggested by the manual. The paper should be not more than six nor less than four single spaced typewritten pages, not including the bibliography.

Assignment:

Drawing from current literary sources (1960's and 1970's) discuss the contemporary Mexican-American family or child in a rural or urban setting by focusing your discussion on a particular problem faced by the child or family unit, such as education, substance abuse, mental health, or financial problems. The focus on a special problem area should serve as a way to organize the narrative.

If you have had current work experience with Mexican-American families or children, you may cite your experiences as a source of information. However, this source of information alone will not be sufficient. It is suggested that the course syllabus bibliography might serve as a

beginning in gathering information for the paper. Information can be cited from class lectures; films; journals, magazines, or newspaper articles; books; and government documents, and from interviews with Texas Migrant Council Child Abuse and Neglect counselors.

Classroom and Class Related Activities

It is suggested that the three films below be shown to elaborate on points made through readings and in class lectures.

Films:

Mexican or American?
Film (16mm, 17 min., color) 1970
Atlantis Producers Inc., 850 Thousand Oaks Blvd., Thousand Oaks, CA, 91360

This film considers the problems of Mexican Americans today who are faced with integrating their culture with that of the Anglo. The problem depicted is one of adjustment to a society that has not accomodated to the Mexican American culture. Mexican Americans are caught in a double bind since events that dictate they forget their cultural heritage also remind them of their cultural identity.

Chicano

Film (16mm, 27 min., color) 1971

McGraw Hill Co., 1221 Avenue of Americas, New York, New York, 10020

This film portrays the roles of various Mexican Americans with differing occupations in American society. The film expands on the life-coping mechanism of a college student, an urban group worker, and a migrant worker. It conveys their personal perspectives of the progress being made by Mexican Americans toward an improved general life-style.

Chicano from the Southwest

Film (16mm, 15 min., color) 1970

Encyclopedia Britannica Education Corp., 425 North Michigan, Chicago, Illinois 60611

This film illustrates the life-style of a rural Mexican American family, and examines the life-style transition from rural to urban living. It enhances the viewer of the effects of urban living on cultural patterns and values. The film which takes place on the West Coast depicts a generational conflict between a migrant father and his son as they respond to changes brought about by their move from a rural to an urban setting.

Unit Bibliography

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UNIT II
The Traditional Child Welfare System and Self-Help Networks

Unit II

Content Outline

II. The Traditional Child Welfare System and Self-Help Networks

A. The Traditional system – an organizational model

B. The self-help formal and informal system

1. Child welfare problem focused programs with a culture sensitive perspective
2. The informal family based network

Unit Goal

Prepare the student to analytically consider the traditional child welfare system and the functional informal/formal self-help networks.

Objectives

This unit will enable the student to:

1. Identify and explain the interdependence of the autonomous parts of the present child welfare system.
2. Explain the difference between the formal and informal self-help networks in the Mexican American community as they were defined in the lecture and through the readings.
3. Discuss the implementation of a method based on knowledge for referring clients through the traditional child welfare system for services and benefits.
4. Explain briefly the historical development of services for children in two service areas, such as health and mental retardation.
5. Explain from an analytical perspective, the structure and function of the contemporary extended Mexican American family as a supportive unit.
6. Discuss one program in the community which was planned with a cultural emphasis in order to address a child welfare problem.
7. Discuss the areas in which funding has become available for special child welfare programs that focus on the migrant child and family.
8. Explain the function in the life of the child of such programs as Supplementary Security Income; Old Age, Survivors, Disability Health Insurance; and Aid to Families of Dependent Children.
9. Discuss and explain the role of foster care placements in recognized cases of abuse and/or neglect.
10. Support, through a discussion, the culturally based considerations a child welfare worker must make in planning for the case of a Mexican American child in foster care.

Readings

Text: Human Services for Mexican-American Children, pp. 43-58.

Optional:

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Assessment Procedure

Two types of assessments suggested, i.e., short multiple choice objective exam and brief essay assignment. (See below for example of essay assignment.)

Example Short Essay Assignment

Instructor:

Due Date:

Purpose:

To encourage the student to develop skills with which to critically analyze a special child welfare service planned with a cultural emphasis.

Grading of Assignment:

Format and Length:

Students should use a manual of their choice which furnishes guidelines or a format for the paper. Footnotes may be collected on the last page in the manner suggested in the manual. The paper should be not more than four single spaced typewritten pages, not including the bibliography.

Assignment:

After a visit to a child welfare service program with a cultural emphasis, respond in a narrative to the following questions: 1) How and why was the service planned and funded?; 2) What is its function and role in the traditional child welfare system?; 3) Describe the range of

services available. Give your opinion, based on knowledge, of why you perceive that the program is or is not successful.

In doing the research necessary for the assignment cite all sources used for information such as people interviewed, class notes, pamphlets and other literature.

Classroom and Class Related Activities

In order to aid the student in integrating the information presented in the unit, it is recommended that field trips to agencies such as those described below be planned. Such field trips should be formal enough in nature so that program information is presented by a program representative.

Escuelita del Sol

A special day care program that is a part of the Mexican American Unity Council. The aim of the program is to develop motor, social, and verbal skills in the child; provide mental health services in a peer group context; reinforce culture, heritage, and language; provide children with a vehicle to experience "success"; and interest the public in the needs of abused and neglected children.

Inman Christian Center

A community center that serves children and families residing in the near Westside of San Antonio through a variety of services in the areas of health, housing, education, child development, and general social services.

Unit Bibliography

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UNIT III

The Intervention Process

Unit III

Content Outline

III. The Intervention Process

A. The process considered

B. The process applied to abuse/neglect in the Mexican American community

Unit Goal

Reinforce the students' knowledge of intervention by discussing specific child welfare cases of abuse and/or neglect.

Objectives

This unit will enable the student to:

1. Review and consider the process of building a relationship with a client and undertaking the tasks of assessment, contract, intervention, and termination in the Mexican American community.
2. Discuss the importance of knowing the language of the family in interviewing for assessment and intervention purposes where there is possible abuse and/or neglect.
3. Explain, through a synthesis of material covered in the unit, how by using an interpreter a language barrier problem might be handled in an interview.
4. Discuss the difficulties in intervening in a migrant family child abuse and/or neglect case.
5. Explain, drawing from a role playing experience, key factors to consider in interviewing a child, family or parent.
6. Discuss the nature of record keeping and correspondence and its importance in child welfare cases.
7. Critique through class discussions two live interviews of child welfare cases seen on video-tape, drawing from information covered on interviewing.
8. Discuss points in the video-tape interviews seen in class where cultural or noncultural awareness was shown by the child welfare workers.
9. Discuss the on-going activities necessary in a case of neglect that is environmentally based, i.e., caused due to the failure of the society to support the family in trouble.
10. Role play in class, informally, a number of non-structured interviews and then prepare, in pairs, a structured interview to be done before the class.

Readings

Text: Human Services for Mexican-American Children, pp. 59-97.

Optional:

Justice, Blair and Rita Justice. The Abusing Family. New York: Human Sciences Press, 1976, pp. 37-83.

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Assessment Procedure

It is suggested that the students prepare a written assignment based on a role play of an assessment interview done in class (See below for example of assignment) and that they be given also a short unit exam.

Structured Role Play Interview Assignment

Class:

Instructor:

Due Date:

Purpose:

To stimulate students to integrate knowledge held and obtained in regard to the social work interview by preparing a simulated assessment interview in pairs to be presented in class. Also to give the student an initial experience in evaluating and recording the interaction that occurs in accomplishing the purpose of the interview.

Grading of Assignment:

Format and Length:

Students should use a manual which furnishes guidelines or a format for the paper. Footnotes may be collected on the last page in the manner suggested by the manual. The paper should be not more than six nor less than four single spaced typewirtten pages, not including the bibliography.

Assignment:

The students will prepare the interview in pairs. It is suggested that students work from the case examples provided in class or create their own case examples in order to plan the interview.

If the student selects a case example used in class, it will be necessary for the student to dramatize and vividly describe this example in order to provide material for the interview. For example, the interaction calls for responses to questions by the interviewer which will require elaboration on facts provided in the case example. Also, the student will need to think in terms of activities that the workers and clients can undertake before the next interview to improve the client life situation.

Working in Pairs, the students will serve as interviewers and interviewees in turn. The student will respond in writing to the following points in regard to the interview: 1) The purpose of the interview; 2) The verbal contacts agreed to in the interview; 3) The types of interventions that occurred during the interview, if any; 4) Discussion of how the gap was bridged to the next interview; 5) How termination was planned and accomplished; 6) The feeling tone of the interview, and 7) A priority list of agreed activities to be undertaken by the clients and the worker before the next interview.

Classroom and Class Related Activities

As a classroom activity it is recommended that the following video-taped live child welfare interviews (produced by the University of Tennessee School of Social Work, entitled, Vantage Point Series) be viewed by the class and critiqued.

Case Number 1

I. Case Description:

A. Name: Dennis and Shirley P.

B. Worker: Mrs. Emily Grainger, Jr. Social Counselor

C. Supervisor: Mrs. Kitty Bryan, Field Spr. I

D. Family Composition:

1. In home:

Father: Dennis P., Sanitation Worker
Mother: Shirley P., Housewife
Children: Twelve children ranging in age from two to seventeen. The three year old girl is a stunted hydroencephalic, and the oldest appears to be mildly retarded. Two of the boys have sickle cell anemia and several others may be retarded.

2. Out of home: Mrs. P has two other children who are living with their father in Detroit. Mrs. P and the father were never married.

E. Background of Case:

This is a case of chronic neglect that was referred to the Department of Human Services in October of 1971. The referral was from the Housing Authority. The presenting problem was a filthy house, with human feces on the floor, screens torn out of the windows, and no furniture. Since 1971, the situation has periodically improved and then fallen back to its former state. A homemaker is in the house for two half-days a week. Mrs. Grainger has been the social worker since December, 1973. We might note that while income is a problem, it is not this family's major problem. Mr. P makes approximately $500.00 per month, plus the family receives food stamps and two of the children receive Supplementary Security checks. Their rent, including utilities, is only $50 per month. The major problem appears to be the extent of family disorganizations.

Case Number II

I. Case Description:

A. Name: Mrs. Nancy Y.

B. Worker: Bill Steppe, Junior Social Counselor

C. Supervisor: Mrs. Jeanette Shope, Field Supervisor I

D. Family Composition:

1. In home:

Mother: Mrs. Nancy Y., unemployed; divorced
Daughter: Susan, 9 years old.

2. Out of home:

Father: Not involved; location unsure
Son: Curtis Rex, 12 years old. Curtis is placed in Sheriff's Youth Town, a Tennessee children's home.

E. Background of Case:

This family first became known to the Department of Human Services several years prior to this interview when Mrs. Y requested temporary placement of the children because of her own hospitalization. Although several family members live close to Mrs. Y, none would care for the children. Susan was placed in a foster home and

Curtis was placed in a residential group home. After Mrs. Y's hospitalization, both children were returned home; however, the school authorities requested that a social assessment be done on Curtis. The recommendation was that he be placed in Sheriff's Youth Town, and Mrs. Y. agreed to this plan.

During the Spring 1975, a complaint was received that Susan had been abused by her mother. The complaint was confirmed and the child placed in foster care. After intensive work with Mrs. Y by the Department and by the local mental health center (Peninsula), Susan was returned home on a six-month's trial basis in September, 1975. The mother continued to make progress and full custody of Susan was returned to her in April, 1976. The mother is not felt to be ready to have Curtis returned and she has expressed no desire to have him returned, because he is doing well in placement. Mrs. Y is a very disturbed woman and everyone working with her realizes this. She has been on medication and her abuse of it has been presenting problems recently. She will take more drugs than prescribed and then become angry when the mental health worker won't authorize that she be given more. She doesn't realize that the worker could not dispense drugs even if she wanted to. Mrs. Y has an explosive temper and is very capable of violence. In addition to her psychological problems, Mrs. Y is obese, has high blood sugar, and arthritis, for which condition she wears a neckbrace during this interview.

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The information given below and appearing on pages -26- through -36- was obtained from the publication titled Persons of Spanish Origin in the Unted States: March 1977. Published by the Bureau of the Census (Series P. 20, No. 329).

PERSONS OF SPANISH ORIGIN IN THE UNITED STATES: MARCH 1977

Population Size and Distribution

Of the 11.3 million persons of Spanish origin in the United States in March 1977, about 6.5 million reported themselves as being of Mexican origin.

Characteristics of Persons

Age. About 42 percent of all persons of Spanish origin were under 18 years of age, as compared to 30 percent for persons not of Spanish origin. Also, the proportion of Spanish persons 65 years old and over was only about 4 percent, as compared with 11 percent for the population not of Spanish origin.

The median age for persons of Spanish origin in March 1977 was 22 years compared with a median age of 30 years for the population not of Spanish origin.

Education. About 18 percent of all Spanish persons in that age group had completed less than 5 years of school, but only 3 percent of persons not of Spanish origin had completed less than 5 years of school. Forty percent of persons 25 years of age and over of Spanish origin had completed 4 years of high school or more, as compared with 66 percent of persons not of Spanish origin.

Employment and Occupation. About 11 percent of all Spanish origin persons in the civilian labor force were unemployed, as compared with 8 percent of the total population in the civilian labor force.

Eighty-one percent of Mexican origin men were in the labor forece in comparison with only 43 percent of Mexican origin women. Sixteen percent of all employed persons in the civilian labor force were professional and technical workers; only 8 percent of the Spanish origin labor force were so employed. Spanish origin working as managers and adminstrators (5 percent) was significantly lower than for the overall population (11 percent). However, the proportion of Spanish persons working as operatives (e.g., garage workers and attendants, produce packers, manufacturing checkers) was greater (26 percent) than for similarly employed persons in the overall population (15 percent).

Seven percent of Spanish men were employed as managers and administrators; only 3 percent of Spanish women were in those professions.

The proportion of Mexican origin men working as farm workers (7 percent) was much larger than for Puerto Rican men (1 percent).

Income of Persons. Median income in 1976 for Spanish origin men 14 years of age and older with income was about $7,050 compared with about $9,580 for men not of Spanish origin.

Only about 14 percent of Spanish origin men 14 years old and over had incomes of over $15,000 in 1976, but the corresponding proportion for men not of Spanish origin was twice as high, 28 percent. Similarly, the proportion of Spanish women with incomes in 1976 of over $15,000 (1 percent) was lower than that of women not of Spanish origin (4 percent).

The median income of Spanish women with income in 1976 – about $3,359 – was only one-half that of Spanish origin men ($7,050). Also, although 35 percent of Spanish origin men had incomes less than $5,000, about 67 percent of women of Spanish origin had incomes below this amount in 1976. In addition, about 2 percent of men of Spanish origin had incomes of $25,000 or more, but only about 0.1 percent of Spanish origin women had incomes at that level.

Characteristics of Families

Family composition and size. In March 1977, there were 2.6 million families of Spanish origin in the United States. About 2 million were husband-wife families, and about 520,000 (1 out of 5) of all Spanish families were maintained by a woman of Spanish origin with no husband present.

The majority of Spanish persons under 18 years of age were living in families. About 77 percent of all family members under 18 yaras of age were living with two parents; about 20 percent were living with their mother only; and 1 percent were living with their father only.

The average number of persons in Spanish families was about four persons in March 1977, but for non-Spanish families the average size was three persons.

Residence. Most families of Spanish origin live in metropolitan areas. In March 1977, about 85 percent of all Spanish origin families resided in metropolitan areas compared with 66 percent of families not of Spanish origin. About 80 percent of Mexican origin families were living in metropolitan areas compared with about 96 percent of Puerto Rican origin families.

Family Income. The median income in 1976 of Spanish origin families was substantially lower than the median income for families not of Spanish origin ($10,300 versus $15,200). About 51 percent of non-Spanish families had incomes over $15,000 in 1976, but only 30 percent of all Spanish families were in that income category. Also, while only 7 percent of non-spanish families had income below $4,000, Spanish families with incomes at that level were double that proportion, 14 percent.

Only 4 percent of male-maintained Spanish families had incomes under $3,000, but 19 percent of of female-maintained Spanish families had incomes under that amount.

Poverty Status. In 1976, about 600,000 families of Spanish origin (23 percent of all Spanish families in the Nation) were living below the poverty level.

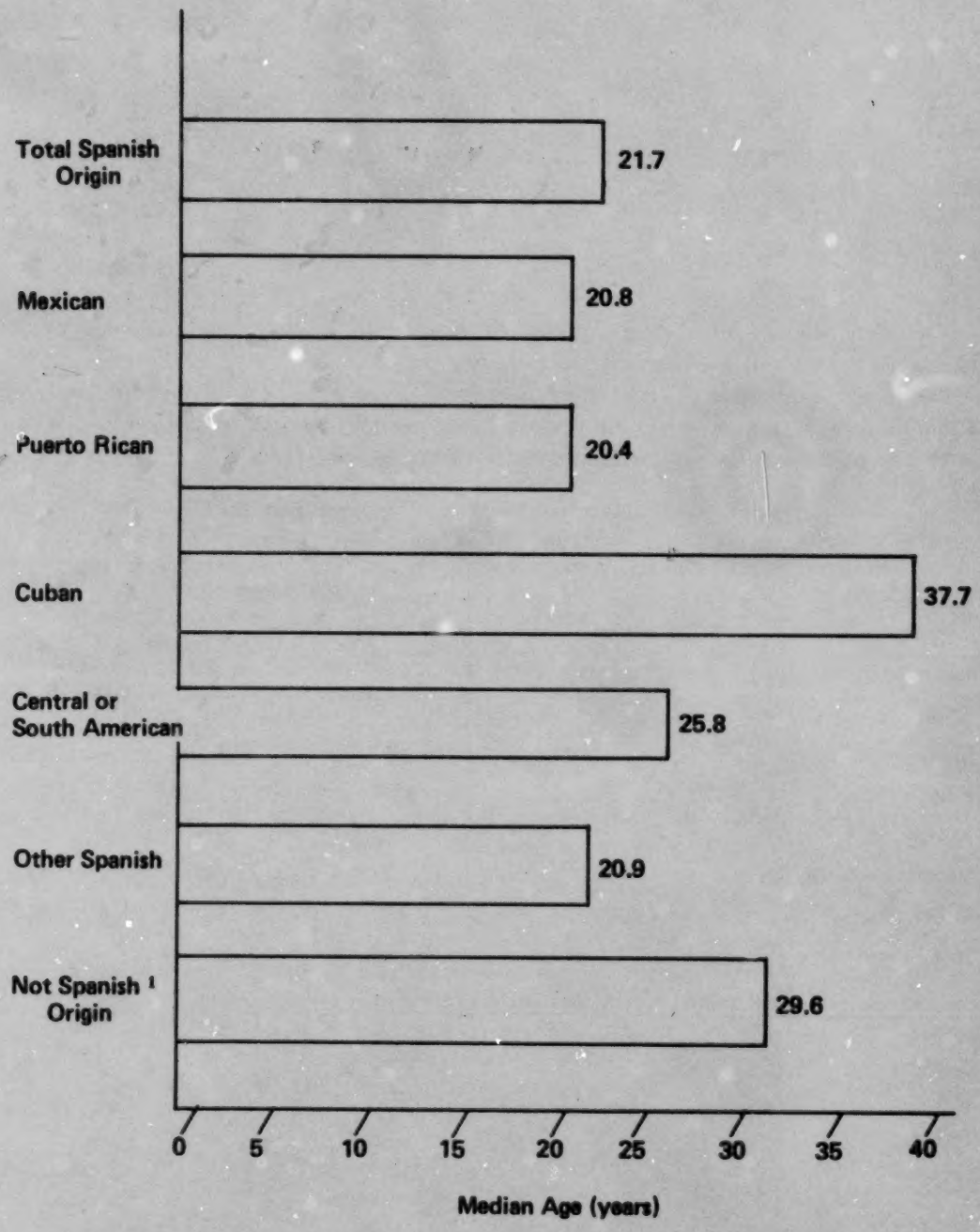
The average number of children in these families was about 2.8 children per family. In about 420,000 Spanish families below the poverty level (about 71 percent of all Spanish families at this level), the person maintaining the family was not a high school graduate.

Table 1. Income of 1976 Spanish Origin Families by Type of Spanish Origin[1]

Type of Spanish Family	Median Family Income	Percent of Families With Income Below $4,000	Percent of Families With Income Of $15,000 or More
Total Spanish Origin	$10,259	13.5	30.1
Mexican	10,322	12.5	29.1
Puerto Rican	7,669	21.6	19.4
Cuban	11,773	15.4	39.8
Central or South American	12,199	3.9	33.3
Other Spanish	12,218	11.2	40.5
Not Spanish Origin [1]	15,176	6.6	50.8

[1]Includes families with head who did not know or did not report on origin.

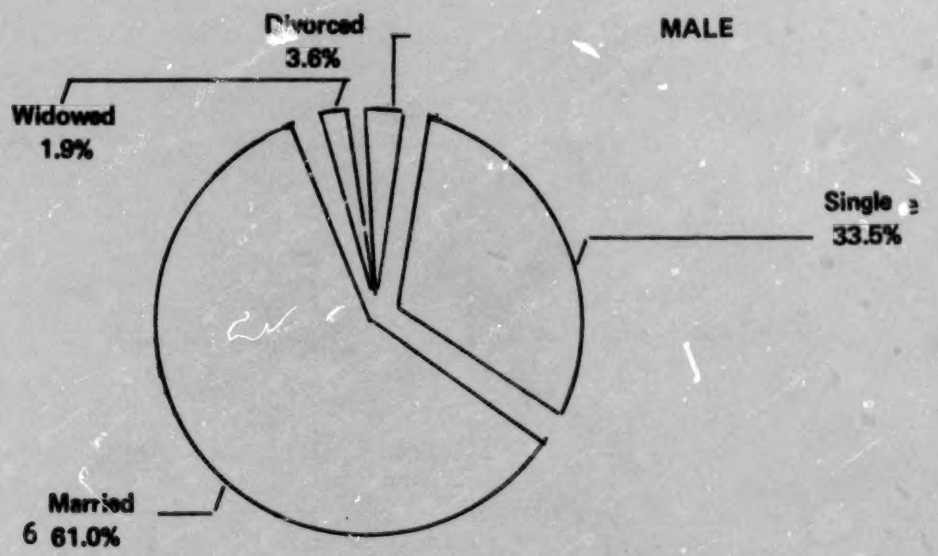
Figure 2 Median Age of Persons by Spanish Origin and Type of Spanish Origin.



[1] Includes persons who did not know or did not report on origin.

Figure 3

Percent of Persons of Spanish Origin 14 Years Old and Over by Marital Status and Sex. : by



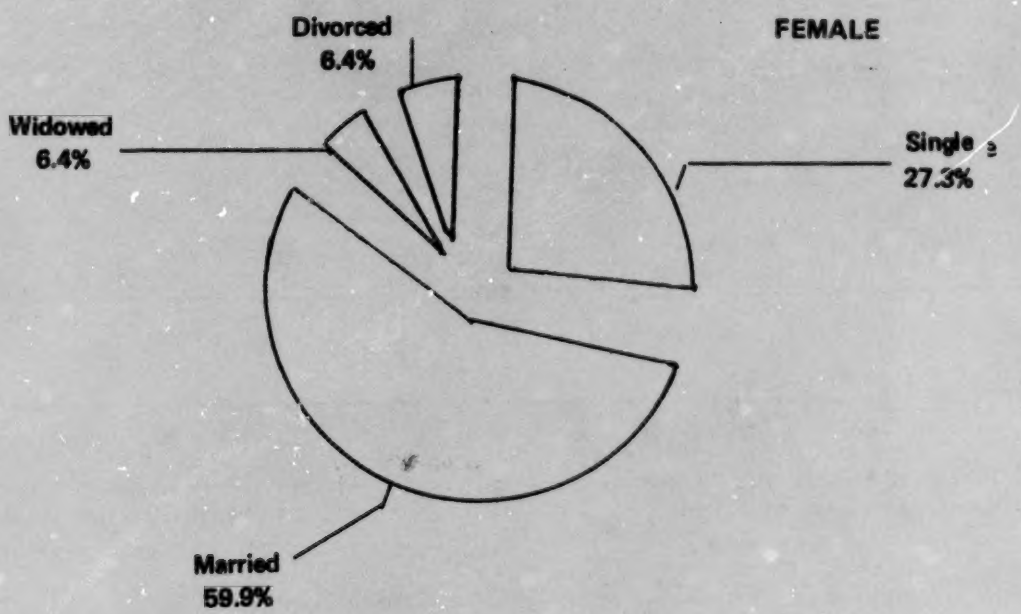
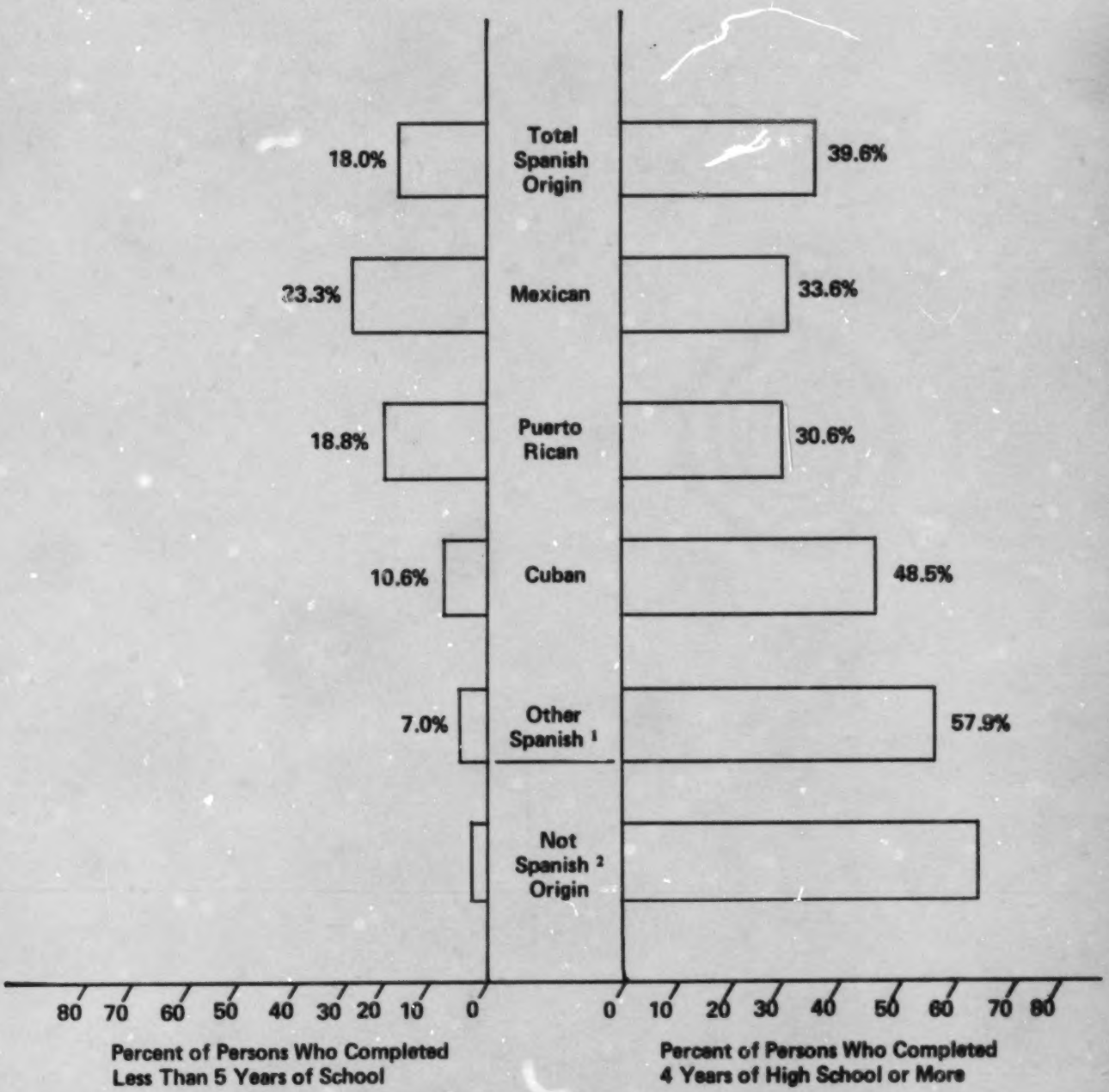


Figure 4

Percent of Persons 25 Years Old and Over by Years of School Completed, Spanish Origin, and Type of Spanish Origin.

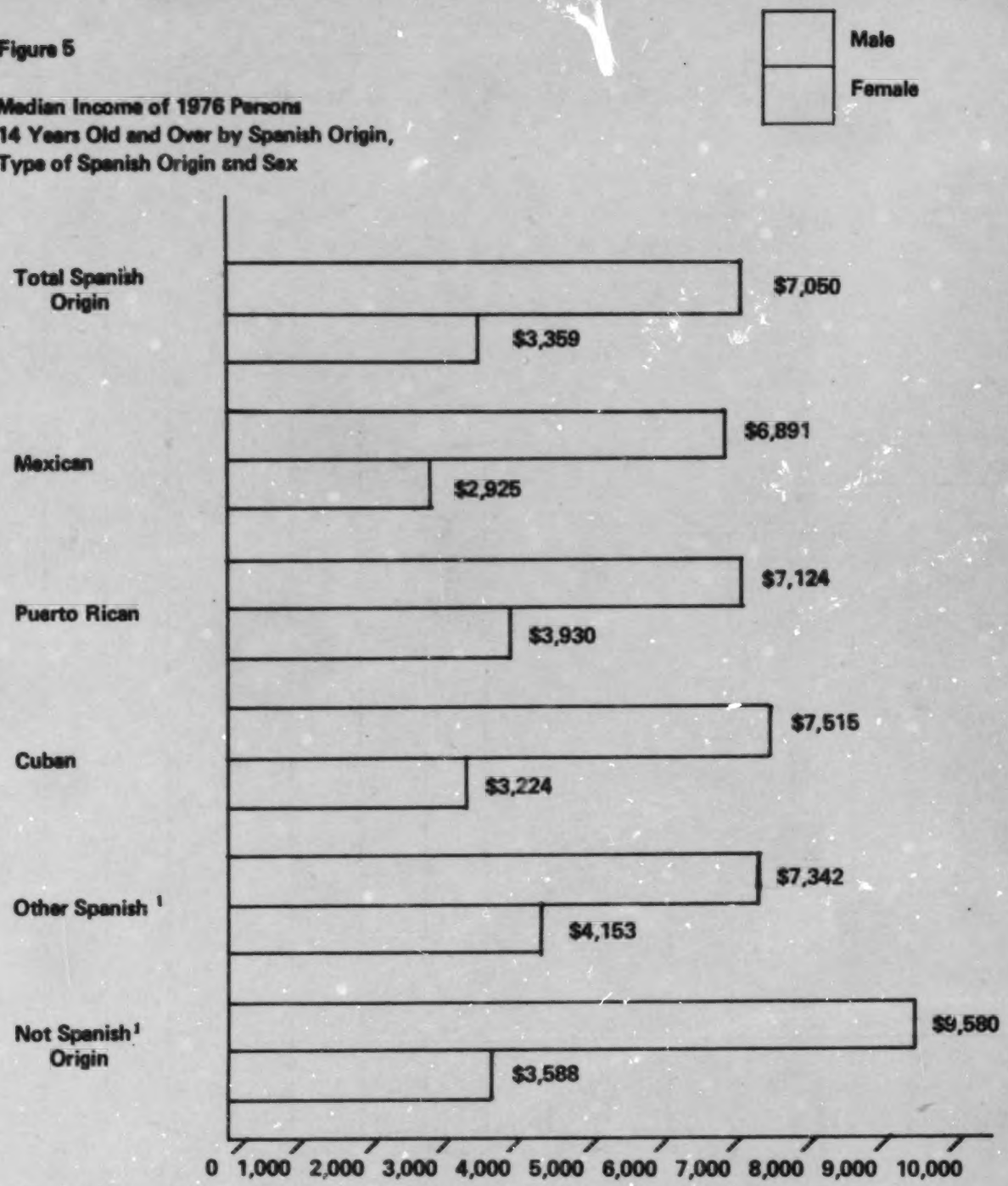


[1] Includes Central or South American Origin and Other Spanish Origin.

[2] Includes persons who did not know or did not report on origin.

Figure 5

Median Income of 1976 Persons
14 Years Old and Over by Spanish Origin,
Type of Spanish Origin and Sex

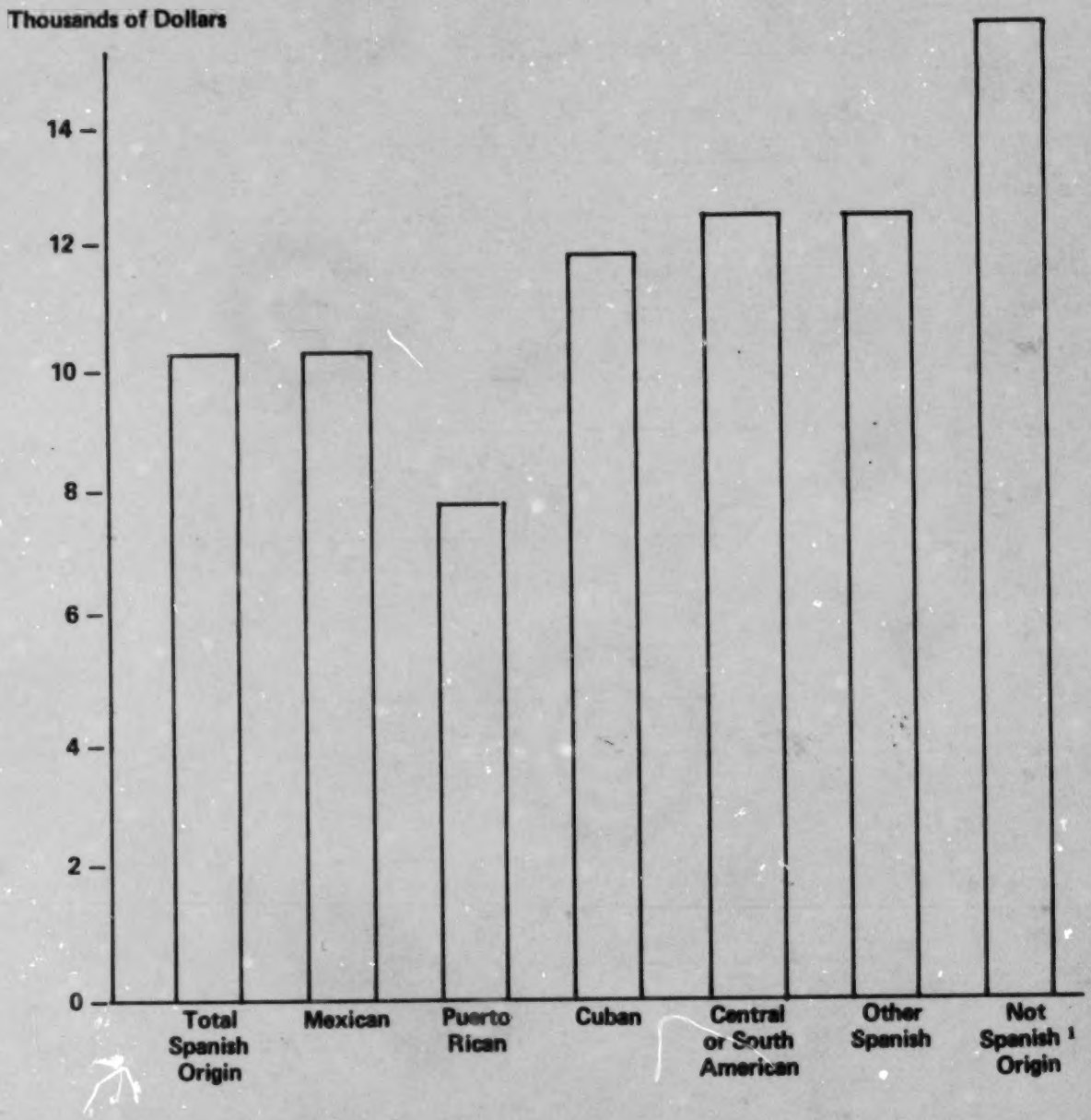


[1] Includes Central or South American Origin and Other Spanish Origin.

[2] Includes persons who did not know or did not report on origin.

Figure 6

Median Income in 1976 of Families by Spanish Origin and Type of Spanish Origin.



[1] Includes persons who did not know or did not report on origin.

The Struggles of the Migratory Worker

Prepared for:
Child Abuse and Neglect in the
Mexican American Community Project
Summer, 1979

Pedro Garcia

Hispanics have worse housing than Americans in General.

: Their housing is particularly deficient in MAINTENANCE and HEATING, with ACCESS TO TOILET being the next most prominent flaw.

: They pay more for housing relative to their incomes.

: They live in older housing.

Disparities among the housing conditions of Hispanic groups themselves are greater than between Hispanics and the general American public.

: Puerto Ricans tend to live in the worst housing: 27.1 percent is flawed.

: Cubans tend to live in the best housing: 9.8 percent of their housing is flawed.

The probability of an Hispanic household living in an inadequate unit depends on:

: The subgroup to which the head of house belongs – Puerto Ricans fare worst, Cubans best.

: The sex of the head of house – male heads generally do worse than female heads.

: The size of the household – very small (one person) households and very large households (six or more persons) are most likely to be ill-housed.

The information above came from a government publication titled: How Well Are We Housed? 1. Hispanics published by the U.S. Department of Housing and Urban Development.

The Struggles of the Migratory Worker

The plight of the migratory worker is a never ending cycle. This paper attempts to shed some light on problems faced by these people in their struggle for survival. Past literature on Mexican Americans (Madsen, Rubel, and Burma) has had little concentration on the migratory struggle.

The movement of the migrant consists of being in transit six to eight months out of the year. His existence is not one of stability but one of transit, toil, and sustainment. The move is generally one without notice, for no one knows how long jobs will last in one particular location. Their transportation is an auto or truck and consists of the entire family (size average from 8 to 10 members) and all tangible belongings (clothes, cooking utensils, and some furniture). The living quarters range from the worst possible to halfway decent.

Their work consists of fast-paced stoop labor, with rate contracted by the acre, pound, and bushel. The labor force usually consists of the whole family household (men, women, and children). This type of labor ranks at the bottom of economic scale in American society.

The migratory workers move in three main streams: (1) East Coast stream, (2) West Coast Coast stream, and (3) the Midwest stream which constitutes the largest movement of migrant workers.

The migratory plight will not be alleviated without acknowledgement by society that these individuals are a big part of the bureaucracy. Society's awareness could reduce the migrants' struggle.

The struggles of the migratory worker have received little, if any enduring attention. Migrants find themselves victims of society. They suffer an enormous injustice of poverty, powerlessness, and inhuman treatment. Day (1975) states that farm migrants have two characteristics which make them the most exploited and deprived group in America. First, they are seen as different from the norm of society, and secondly, they are nomads.

The migrant family finds itself neatly tied together by a great abundance of compassion and understanding. There is a great bond of religous faith to carry them through their torment and toils. Stewart and Sandage (1968) elaborated that migrant life is tripped of all superficialities and falseness; what is left is to carry on with an honest attempt to deal with a world many of us dare not admit is realism in today's America.

The realistic world of the migrant family consists of large families ranging from 8 to 10 members in the household. Generally, their income is less than the average poverty index guidelines. Stewart and Sandage (1968) state that migrant families understand the rudiments of budgeting better than some affluent citizens.

The majority of income is used to purchase food. The basic food diet consists of flour, lard, baking powder, potatoes, rice, and pinto beans. The food is usually purchased in large quantities to sustain the family from pay period to pay period. These foods alone do not constitute a balanced diet, but for the price they are better than nothing at all. The main concern of the family spending entails their mode of transportation. Without money, no food. The automobile, for that reason, is seen as the bread and butter of the migrant family.

The entire family shares in the work process at one point or another in their lives to insure that an adequate income is available to sustain the needs of the family. Due to the low education level of the migrant family, it finds itself without economic choices in income, in bargaining power, and in the changing process.

Migrant family members are our fellow citizens, yet in certain respects strangers, foreigners, even outcasts who are utterly removed from the America everyone else takes for granted.

The migrant child learns at an early age that this sort of life style allows no spoils. Cole (1970) states that the child learns right off that he has no particular possessions of his own, no place that is his to use for rest and sleep, no objects that are his to look at and touch and move about and come to recognize as familiar. The children bear the same scars as their parents in growing up in an uncertain world. A migrant child spends his life in an impoverished, primitive world, a stranger to life beyond the fields (Moore 1976). Cole (1970) comments that unlike middle class children, the migrant child cannot assume that internal pains will soon find some kind of relief, or that external nuisances (and worse) will be quickly done away with after a shout, a cry, a scream.

The lack of adequately met basic needs contribute greatly to migrant children's physical and mental health, social development, and mostly to their well being. The movement from camp to camp creates economic disasters for the child in the sense that without funds, basic needs are not met. The need to secure a job, food, and shelter dominates the situation. This tends to follow the order given in Maslow's theory of basic needs: the physiological needs, the safety needs, the love and belongingness needs, the esteem needs, and the needs for self-actualization (Day 1975).

The mobility of migrant children along with their Spanish heritage, poverty, lack of education, and language and cultural differences cause increased problems for them in educational settings. Children face a losing battle to avoid getting stereotyped, judged, and rejected before they start. Day (1975) states that our society and its schools must realize both intellectually and emotionally that because a child is different does not mean that he has less value than others.

The migrant streams have remained fairly fixed since World War II. There are three pathways or streams that migrants follow: (1) along the Pacific Coast from Southern California to Washington: (2) from South Texas terminating in the Great Lakes area, the Great Plains states, the Rocky Mountain states, and the West Coast; and (3) from Florida up the East Coast through New York and sometimes into New England. The West Coast movement is primarily made up of Mexican Americans with some Anglos, Blacks, and Indians. Ninety percent of the central stream, which begins in Texas, are Mexican Americans. The Atlantic seaboard stream is made up of 90 percent Blacks and a few Puerto Ricans and Mexican Americans (Day 1975).

The dominant group of the migratory work force is Mexican American. They make up over 75 percent of the total population of the three streams.

The future is bleak for migrant farm workers. Modern advances in mechanization are rapidly coming to American agriculture, i.e., automatic pickle pickers, machines to pluck cherries from trees, and other exotic devices will soon replace workers (Day 1975).

The development of saleable skills is the primary route for achieving economic independence. Every migrant parent and child should be educated and trained so they will be able to exercise freedom of choice in determining whether to leave or stay in the migrant work force.

Factors Affecting Child Welfare in the Migrant Community

The problems confronting migrant farmworkers and their families are complex, interrelated, and difficult to solve. The difficulties in finding adequate solutions stem from, first a lack of personal resources and collective power on the part of migrants. Not only are migrant farmworkers relatively powerless politically, but in addition, they possess very few resources. Often the reources they lack include many basic skills such as minimal education that may be unlearned because of language barriers, and this only adds to the grinding poverty migrants experience. Their low incomes and general lack of resources make them individually and collectively vulnerable to being exploited, either in terms of paying heavily for goods and services rendered, or being ignored and not receiving any goods or services at all. A second factor involved in solving

migrant farmworkers' problems involves the provision of adequate and relevant services by current service providers. Both because of a maze or definitions concerning residency, eligibility, etc., and because of funding, staffing, and service provision patterns (including gaps), migrants receive inadequate services. For example, migrants often do not quality for many services because they are not residents of the state providing the services. Furthermore, programs seeking to provide services find it difficult to secure facilities that meet licensing requirements. The third factor contributing to the action plan. This is evidenced by a stop-gap approach in funding, such that, for example, there are a multiple number of agencies (e.g., DOL, HHS, USDA) funding a multiple number of programs that are overall uncoordinated. They employ different definitions, have differing requirements and most often depend upon states for their implementation. Thus, the solutions to migrant farmworker problems involve federal, state, county, and local governments as well as the migrants and those for whom they work, and it is critical that solutions be found.

Migrant farmworkers labor is crucial to the agricultural productivity of the United States, and consequently affects U.S. economy and the world distribution of food. Not only are a large number of the farms dependent upon manual labor for harvesting, but in addition, the success of many processing plants and canneries is dependent upon migrant labor. Estimates on the number of migrant workers range from 6000,000 to 1.3 million and many of these workers have families containing four to seven children.[1] Migrant laborers are a large force contributing to the U.S. economy, but receiving few or virtually none of the benefits.

The migrant farmworker's style of life is typified by a recurrent set of conditions. Continual travel is necessitated by the nature of the growing seasons, harvesting periods, and the social organization of crews, migrants, and growers. While the first two are minimally influenced by man, the latter are products of man's interaction. The number of crews, the fact they criss-cross each other, the power of the crew bosses, and the lack of control families often have testified to the bleak life migrants face. Often migrants have insufficient funds and lack sufficient foods. They exist in overcrowded, unsanitary dwellings that often they must "rent". Often too, they must pay crew leaders a percentage of their meager earnings for transportation, food, and other goods and services. Migrant workers labor long hours under dangerous conditions. Since both parents work because they cannot afford to do otherwise, their children also come to the fields and often the smaller children begin working voluntarily, while the older children feel obligated and must work. These patterns are repeated from labor camp to labor camp for the six to eight months migrants stay in the labor stream. When they return home, the conditions they live under are not much better, but at least they are no longer transients.

Overall, the migrant farm laborer's condition of existence and lack of resources make a necessity for adequate provision of social services. Yet while a few are provided adequately, virtually all others are inadequate and irrelevant when they exist, and some do not exist at all. There are several barriers to the delivery of services: migrant transiency across county and state lines; linguistic differences; lack of knowledge; inadequate legislation and enforcement; and the economic exploitation of migrants. Added to these conditions is the lack of advocacy for positive changes in the migrant picture. Migrants are fractured, isolated, poor, and transient, but large groups of people who have very little political power. Thus, effecting a better service delivery system will not be an easy task and cannot be accomplished by anything less than a national strategy and coordinated action plan.

[1] In 1975, in Texas alone it was estimated that there were 85,600 migrant and seasonal farmworker households. Migrant households were estimated to contain 375,000 persons while seasonal farmworkers households accounted for an additional 120,000 persons (Governor's Office of Migrant Affairs, 1976: 2-3). However, given the nuances of definition or the total lack of definition for "migrant farmworker" an accurate estimate of the population is difficult to make.

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With regard to child abuse and neglect, and migrant child welfare in general, the services needed are not so much traditional child welfare services (e.g., foster homes), but vastly more so services such as day care, health care, adequate housing, and education. Traditional child welfare services cannot provide what migrants and their children actually need, and it appears that current programs do not adequately meet the demand for needed services.

The analysis presented here is based upon data derived from transcriptions of proceedings at the Texas Migrant Council Workshop on Child Abuse and Neglect, March 1978. In addition, when appropriate, we have noted similarities between conference observations and other published reference materials. The views presented in this analysis are not necessarily the views of the Texas Migrant Council, the National Center on Child Abuse and Neglect, the Office of Health and Human Services, HHS, or their staff; nor are they policy statements.

Because of the prevailing conditions under which migrant farmworkers exist, it is most difficult to conceive child abuse and neglect in a traditional sense. Workshop participants at the TMC conference made distinctions between intentional and unintentional neglect, and personal-institutional neglect (SEE FIGURE I). Traditional definitions of neglect (CELL ONE, FIGURE I) generally focus upon dereliction of parental duties, the psychology of neglect and abuse, and syndromes of abuse. For example, DeFrancis argues that child abuse and neglect consists of one or more of the following elements: (1) it is a violation of the rights and needs of children; (2) it results from dereliction of parental duty, i.e., failure on the part of a parent to carry out parental obligations; and (3) it results from a combination of the first two elements (1972:6). Later DeFrancis admits the possibility of "community neglect", but fails to explore it centering instead on parental responsibility (1972:7).

FIGURE I

INTENTIONALITY OF PERSONS AND ORGANIZATIONS TO ENGAGE IN CHILD ABUSE & NEGLECT

INTENTIONAL	(1) (Includes Nuclear Family) Resources available not used; Abuse/Neglect through lack of provision. (TRADITIONAL DEFINITIONS)	(2) Resources Available but no services provided misuse of appropriate funds. Planned lack of adequate staff.
UNINTENTIONAL	(3) Brought about through lack of resources, knowledge, situational conditions, awareness of needs.	(4) Organization is unaware of needs or lack of resources. Unplanned lack of adequate staff.

Such definitions employ medical and/or public health models of abuse/neglect and call upon traditional child welfare services for aid to families and crisis intervention. While this approach may be fruitful for other settings and other groups, conference participants did not view it as relevant to the needs of migrants.

What was considered relevant were the other three conditions identified in FIGURE I. Conferees repeatedly noted that the vast majority of neglect cases they had experienced among migrants were "unintentional neglect" most often due to lack of available resources and adequate housing, and lack of adequate knowledge about nutrition and health. That is, parents do not want these conditions but cannot do anything about it. For example, when both parents work, and there are

no child care services available or no ways to transport children to them, parents have a set of undesirable alternatives. Leaving the children alone in the labor camp is neglectful; leaving older children in charge places younger children at risk; taking them to the fields and leaving them in the car or truck unattended is neglectful; and taking them into the fields is neglectful and frequently leads to child labor as the children desire to help. One parent could remain at home and watch the children, but this lowers the productivity of the family unit so that enough income cannot be made, and thus, children become neglected due to a lack of resources. Faced with these options, conferees noted, which does one choose?

Notions of unintentional neglect force focus upon why services are available, to lead to a social and more systematic analysis of migrant child welfare, and point to questions concerning mandated social service programs, their delivery systems, and their collective organizational intent. One view of some service providers is that they unintentionally fail to provide adequate services. For example, education and day care services may be available but the hours of program operation may be inconsistent with needs; moreover, no transportation services are provided effectively, limiting migrant children within their jurisdiction, or they may not have adequate funds or staff to properly provide services. Finally, definitions of eligibility may make it impossible for migrants to qualify. Unintentional neglect/abuse can be remedied through insuring that organizations become aware of the needs, are provided funding to deliver services, and make this delivery a priority. That is however, not true for intentional neglect/abuse by organizations. When social service agencies know migrants need their services but fail to provide them even though resources are available to aid migrants but local agencies deliberately do not apply, one has intentional organizational neglect/abuse. It should be pointed out that both intentional and unintentional organizational neglect/abuse concepts have a base in a fundamental principle of juvenile law: that the state is the ultimate parent and should provide when parents cannot. Analysis of the organizational patterns of neglect/abuse must be more economic and sociological in nature and must focus strategy (policy) and action upon building an adequate service delivery service system.

Participants in the TMC conference identified many areas as federal, state, and local levels in which change needed to occur for adequate service delivery. While the foregoing sections of this manual present the recommendations of individual workgroup sessions, this analysis centers on four areas:

(1) Increased Coordination of Programs

(2) Increased Service Provisions

(3) Increased Continuity of Service

(4) Militant Advocacy

I. INCREASED COORDINATION OF SERVICES

In order for there to be a national strategy for adequate delivery of necessary services to migrant farmworkers, there is a need for increased coordination of federal programs. Coordination is crucial because it allows for planning and implementing a full range of services, places emphasis on linkages between programs, and usually results in an increase in efficient and effective service delivery. Presently, at the federal level, the majority of programs for migrant farmworkers and their children are administered through the Department of Health, and Human Services, Education and Welfare (HHS) while others are housed in the Department of Labor and Agriculture. Programs for migrant children are most often funded through specially targeted programs and while these programs aim more or less at the same population, the effectiveness of their delivery is impeded because of lack of coordination. For example, child care programs may or may not have health services, and an increase in coordination would assure an integrated delivery of these two critical services.

Since the majority of programs are located in HHS, it seems logical that the greatest potential for increased coordination lies in locating the coordinating effort there. Perhaps the best office for this effort is the Administration for Children, Youth, and Families. Currently, however, the Community Service Administration has the responsibility for coordinating, reviewing, and monitoring federal programs for migrant workers even though they administer no programs.[2] No matter where the coordinating effort is housed, there is a necessity for a coordinating body composed of both directors of federal programs designed to primarily serve migrants, and director of programs which include migrants as part of the population served.[3] In their policy recommendations concerning coordination, Cavenaugh, Lynch, Porteaus, and Gordon (1977: 24-28) would have a coordinating effort directed by such a coordinating body which would act as an umbrella for coordination and for effecting programmatic changes when necessary. The coordinating body would have support staff "to review operations of the member agencies' programs, identify opportunities for improved coordination and effectiveness:, and prepare an annual report for the Congress. The report would describe the "basic conditions, impact of programs, improvements in coordination through the program efforts, and selected issues requiring the further attention fo the Congress. The purpose would be to improve the effectiveness of the federal government's effort on behalf of migrant and seasonal farmworkers" (Cavenaugh, et. al. 1977: 24-25). Recommendations from the TMC conference repeatedly called for uniform definitions, and one of the priorities of the coordination effort must be the development of a standard definition of "migrant" which would be used by all migrant programs (for a similar recommendation, see Cavenaugh, et. al., 1977: 25).

At the federal level, several important programs need to be expanded, and secure informational linkages created between them. The migrant head start program has demonstrated its effectiveness as a general child welfare service, and particularly as a way to prevent child abuse and neglect. This program must be expanded and service linkages made between it, health care delivery, and education services. The overall goal is to create an integrated delivery of a full range of services, and to achieve this goal and establish the necessary programs and linkages, congressional action may be necessary. Wherever migrant farmworker families are, there is a necessity for service and, thus such programs as Title I Migrant Education should be made a requirement. Furthermore, the nutritional program like Women, Infants, and Children (WIC) might be better integrated into the delivery system if they were administratively housed within HHS. Finally, with a uniform definition of migrant farmworkers, eligibility requirements for aid, such as Aid to Families with Dependent. Children (AFDC), could be made more relevant and improve the services provided to migrants.

In terms of information about migrants, there is a need for a national information center which would perform a variety of crucial tasks. First, a national directory of service providers would be produced, distributed, and periodically updated. Secondly, all successful programs and innovations would be collected, published, and disseminated to other providers. Finally, the center would monitor improvements in the Migrant Student Record Transfer System (MSRTS) and the National Migrant Referral Project (NMRP).

Another aspect of the creation of coordination focuses on funding. Federal funding of programs primarily through block grants to states may not be the best way of implementing change since this procedure allows for a great degree of discretion. Instead, coordination and integration efforts must be focused through categorical and targeted programs. Each of these has advantages and disadvantages, but in general both allow for focus on specific problems. Furthermore, funding

[2] Public Law 93-644, Section 6 (b)

[3] This recommendation parallels one made by Cavenaugh, Lynch, Porteaus, and Gordon (1977:24)

of programs must have as essential criteria: coordination with other providers concerned with migrants; when possible, integration with other local providers and simplification of service delivery; effective outreach; and adequate bilingual/bicultural staffing.

Finally, as part of a federal effort, migrant farmworkers must be guaranteed a minimum wage and the right to bargain collectively. Legislation in Wisconsin is a step in this direction, but there is a need for a broader action. Enacted in June 1977, the intent of the Wisconsin Legislation is to improve the status of migrant workers through creating a Council of Migrant Labor within the state's Department of Industry, Labor and Human Relations; providing "standards for wages, hours and working conditions of migrant workers, certification, maintenance and inspection of migrant labor camps, recruitment and hiring of migrant workers; and guaranteeing the right of free access to migrant labor camps to ensure that migrant workers and their families are not isolated from the rest of the community or from services to which they are legally entitled." (State of Wisconsin, Chapter 17, Laws of 1977: 1). Federal legislation like the Wisconsin law is necessary to ensure basic rights for migrant farmworkers.

II. INCREASED SERVICE PROVISION

Currently, there is an under-utilization of existing services by migrant farmworker families. Every effort must be made to ensure that migrants have an easy access to services, that they have knowledge of the services, and that services are provided. Ease of access must be facilitated through changes in funding structure, eligibility and residency requirements, and licensing requirements, as well as modifications in the delivery system for services. For example, day care under Title XX is funded by federal money matched by 25% state funds. It is administered by state departments of social services through local offices. In some states, counties must contribute part of the state's share. The funding structure is such that day care under Title XX becomes a local option and eligibility requirements can and do, differ from county to county and state to state.

Furthermore, even when funding is made available, other legal matters can impede delivery of services. With regard to day care facilities, two of the major problems providers have are locating facilities, and licensing of facilities when located. Many states do not have procedures for licensing day care centers which are seasonal and temporary. Facilities that are located are often churches or schools, and these frequently do not meet federal standards for day care programs. These circumstances make it difficult to provide innovative day care and day care outreach under the current regulations.

A better provision of existing services and an increase in service appears necessary if positive impact is to be achieved. Better provision would occur if relevance of programs for migrant farmworker families was increased. Specifically, program staffing must include bilingual/bicultural staff who understand migrant lifestyles. In addition, the educational materials used, whether in health education or pre-school education, must be culturally relevant; they should be bilingual and be substantively related to migrant lifestyles. Moreover, service providers hours of operation must promote full utilization of and access to the services available. Adequate funding is necessary to run programs from the early hours into the evening, and to provide out-reach into the migrant labor camps.

Better provision could be more efficiently accomplished by the use of innovative delivery components. For example, rather than each agency or program sending a representative to work camps to determine eligibility, access needs, etc., a bilingual/bicultural two-member team could provide for centralization of these activities. The team members would be acquainted with federal and state program regulations and, in addition, be trained to do the necessary needs, assessments and outreach for a variety of programs. They would be able to provide local, in-the-field, coordination of services.

Another aspect of an innovative model concerns the use of mobile health, education, and temporary day care services, in camp education on nutrition and other matters could be accomplished. Mobile services ought to be provided through the use of bilingual/bicultural teams.* Funds for service providers to recruit and staff bicultural teams, as well as funds for demonstrating the efficiency of this type of outreach must be made available.

Another innovative component focuses on a gap in educational services. Services and programs for older migrant children are few and there is a need to increase the number and scope. In addition, however, there is a need to provide incentives for older migrant children to attend. It must be kept in mind that a child of twelve is often a wage earner in a migrant family and the family depends upon his or her contribution to sustain life. That is, many of the services offered by the Comprehensive Employment and Training Act (CETA), Title III (e.g., on the job training, family assistance, etc.), to adults are relevant to older children as wage earners. It is difficult to interest individuals in medium or long range goals when there is a pressing, constant question about short-term existence. In order to reach older children, aggressive outreach and innovative educational programs are necessary. One implementable component focuses on "learn and earn" programs in which older migrant children are trained in vocational skills and paid for learning these skills. The payment acts as an incentive to learn and in addition, allows the child to aid his family while benefiting himself.

In order to provide adequate nutritional health care for migrant children, programs such as WIC should be expanded. In addition, a transfer system of slots in this and other programs needs to be implemented. That is, while transient from state to state, migrant families would remain eligible for services because their homebase slot would transfer to the current location. This allows both for the delivery service and continuity of service, (for a similar recommendation see Cavenaugh, et. al, 1977: 31).

In terms of informational needs, directories of area-wide services made available to both providers and migrants, would greatly enhance access and delivery of services. Ideally, the directories would be bilingual and distributed by bilingual/bicultural outreach workers.

A critical area in which innovation is necessary concerns the housing of and for migrants. This is a two-fold problem: housing of facilities for service provision; and housing for migrant families. Service providers frequently have problems locating adequate facilities to house their programs. In rural areas the number of dwellings available and suitable is generally quite small if, indeed, they are available. Geographically, programs become badly misplaced and transportation costs precipitously increase. However, innovative alternative arrangements are availabe. One is the use of temporary buildings for programs in areas with a high concentration of migrants. Another focuses on the use of tax incentives to promote availability of facilities. The two combined may allow optimum placement of facilities and thus greatly enhance service delivery. Land owners could be provided incentives for allowing temporary facilities to be located on their property. Facilities closer to the client population would thus allow for ease of outreach and greater utilization.

However, the problem of facilities is minor compared to the overall lack of adequate housing for migrant farmworker families. Large growers such as Del Monte are most able to provide housing, but other small growers provide scant or no housing at all. Often, when housing is provided, it is in terrible condition. Drafty, dilapidated single room dwellings with earthen floors, housing families of six or eight do not make for a healthful environment. Added to these conditions are the lack of sanitation facilities, and sometimes even water. It is not uncommon to find entire families

* At least one of the team could be trained in health care and training could be modeled after the Colorado Health Care Associate Training Program.

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living in their cars or pick-up trucks because no housing is available or because they have no funds with which to rent adequate housing. In several instances, migrants have found to be living in their cars because the housing they were living in was closed by the Occupational, Safety, and Health Administration (OSHA) for violating standards and there was no alternative housing available. While these types of situations place migrant children at great risk and potentiate child abuse, they can hardly be blamed entirely on the parents. Furthermore, such conditions isolate migrants from the rest of the established community even though parts of that community are responsible for the conditions, Moreover, such conditions make it difficult to provide services since it is most difficult to deliver services to families that literaly are without any current living space.

Similarly, the removal of children from these "homes" seems inappropriate in light of the social conditions allowed to prevail. Clearly, there is a need for national policy and action to provide solutions to the problems of migrant housing. It is unavoidable that cases of child neglect occur in such environment and it is inappropriate to blame only the families when the conditions are beyond their power of change. The problem is systematic and requires system wide action. One implementable component would be to provide, perhaps through rural development programs, subsidies to growers or communities willing to construct or upgrade migrant housing. Alternative and/or in addition, tax incentives could be provided for the same purpose. Furthermore, other states should implement statues similar to the Wisconsin legislation (discussed previously) that establishes adequate minimum standards for housing. What is clear; however, is that migrant families and their children are at risk in a most severe manner, and housing is one of the most critically pressing needs.

III. INCREASING THE CONTINUITY OF SERVICES

Continuity of service provision to migrants is a formidable problem. Not only are migrants transient, but they move across a myriad of definitional boundaries. Lack of similarity in definitions of eligibility is a severe problem in itself, but it is also coupled with divergencies in state social service organizations. While some states have social services centrally organized, others rely on county organizations. Federally, programs have a wide variation in definition, and there exists no national strategy for integrating and coordinating service provision.

To increase continuity, there must be an increase in information transferred about migrant farmworkers and their children. Information about services migrants need, or have received, cannot be tranferred and programs in one county may not know that in the adjacent counties other providers are operating. While current national records systems are a step in the right direction, they must be improved and expanded. To transfer relevant information, it must be gathered in a sensitive and meaningful way. The use of bilingual/bicultural outreach workers would increase the amount of information providers have about migrants.

Even so, there is a lack of relevant and adequate services and there are gaps in service delivery systems. Continuity of service would be improved by increased funding that stresses integration of service delivery systems and stresses provision of full range of services. Aggressive outreach by bilingual and bicultural workers would increase utilization of services as would the use of mobile health and educational services. What is clear; however, is that any discussion of continuity must be prefaced by positive changes to increase coordination and to increase adequacy of current services and their delivery systems.

IV. MIGRANT ADVOCACY

Migrant advocacy involves government and private sector organizations and concerns both economic and social issues. However, the different lifestyle of the migrant farmworker, their social needs remain the same as other citizens. Any restructuring of the organization of delivery service and of the migrant labor system that does not satisfy basic human needs will not be successful.

Crucial to improvement of migrant farmworker's life is improvement of economic status. Farmworkers are paid less than the minimum wage and do not engage in collective bargaining. Often, out of their meager wages, they must pay rent for housing the fees to crew leaders for food transportation. In this way they are kept isolated, fragmented, and are easily exploited. Migrant farmworkers must have the right to collectively bargain and must be guaranteed a decent return for their labor. Advocacy for such action should appropriately come from a receptive government interested in the welfare of its citizens and interested in the stability of the agricultural production system. However, if government fails to respond, advocacy for decent wages and collective bargaining rights will surely emerge.

The roles that farmworker advocacy organizations plan are crucial to efforts to secure a better life for migrants. After working at hard labor in the fields from dawn to dust, workers are too tired to spend remaining energy on advocacy. Advocacy organizations perform a variety of essential services; easing tensions in host communities, and education of host communities about the essential nature of migrant farmworkers to their continued economic well-being. Since migrants sometimes are denied services for which they are eligible, advocacy groups can intervene. By promoting equitable treatment of all citizens, and by acting on behalf of migrants, organizations aid in securing basic services. Moreover, organization can represent farmworkers' needs within the political process to secure greater shares of basic social services. Migrant advocacy should be carried out by government. States which utilize migrant labor must establish if one does not currently exist, an office that acts on the behalf of migrants. Such an office would coordinate social service efforts, pinpoint areas of need, educate providers about migrants' needs, and monitor the delivery of services. Legal aid services for migrant farmworkers provide another avenue of advocacy. Frequently the types of suits brought on behalf of migrants involve basic needs such as food and housing. Local providers and growers often believe they are being singled out and resist efforts to aid migrants. One legal advocacy group that has had impact is the Migrant Legal Action Program. MLAP functions as a national support center for rural migrant advocacy, monitors federal legislation and enforcement, and provides legal information.

Communities which gain their agricultural stability from migrant labors must come to realize that they stand to gain significantly from migrant advocacy. Advocacy groups must work with communities and growers if basic needs of migrants are to be met with a minimum of cost to all those involved. The degree to which local providers, growers, and governments can work with advocacy groups will greatly influence the stability of the agricultural system. Where local groups are receptive, migrants will receive the wages they deserve and the services they need. In addition, the relative lack of problems ensures a greater stability in society. Currently; however, legal aid and social service advocates are necessary and critical in order for migrants to secure basic services. Presently, communities refuse to accept even partial responsibility for the economic and social conditions that dominate migrant life. If growers, local providers, and government continue to remain deaf to migrant needs and do not provide basic human services, they will significantly and directly develop the negative force necessary to sustain and endure a more radical advocacy.

APPENDIX A

Resource Material Unit I

SELECTED ANNOTATED BIBLIOGRAPHY
Unit I

Cabrera, Y.A. A Study of American and Mexican-American Culture Values and Their Significance in Education. Denver: University of Colorado, 1963.

The purpose of this study was to synthesize data on American and Mexican American cultural values in order to better understand the nature of conflict differences which affect programs of education and to provide a background of information which could be used as a basis for planning curriculum for meeting the needs of Mexican American children.

The findings of the study lead to the conclusion that changes to date in educational programs for Mexican American children are changes in emphasis rather than total curricular revisions. Two qualifications to this conclusion are the critical needs of teachers for: (1) A sound understanding of American and Mexican culture values and (2) Intensive training for teaching of English as a foreign language.

Garcia, Richard A. The Chicanos in America 1540—1974. New York: Oceana Publications, Inc., 1977.

The author provides resource information to enrich and expand the reader's historical perspective of the Chicano culture. He encompases two basic themes that have always characterized the Chicano population — oppression and struggle. There is also inference on themes that emerged in the 1960's (pride, self-determination, mass political action, and self-awareness as a community — as Raza).

Grebler, L., J.W. Moore and R.C. Guzman. The Mexican-American People: The National's Second Largest Minority. New York: The Free Press, 1970.

This book is based on a major study which presented a clear and concise portrait of the Mexican American culture in relation to the dominant society. It addresses the interrelationships of factors such as economic status, cultural values, style of life, educational attainment, family structure, political participation, and between socioeconomic conditions and their historical antecedents. The studies took place in the states of California, Texas, New Mexico, Colorado, and Arizona where the largest concentration of Mexican American population is situated. In fact the thrust of the study was based on surveys of Chicano households in East Los Angeles and San Antonio. The researchers compiled an array of important findings relating to the Mexican American culture, which indicated that social change is taking place in the cultura.

Kuvlesky, William P. and Victoria M. Patella. "Aspirations for Upward Social Mobility Among Mexican-American Youth." Journal of Vocational Behavior, 1971, 1, 231-244.

This article reports on a study that has the objective of proving that the degree of identification with the Mexican American subculture among adolescents is inversely related to language, mobility (inter-generational), and occupational aspirations. The study was formulated by using

theoretical statements by Talcott Parsons and others. The sample comprised 500 Mexican American high school sophomores from South Texas. Ethnic identification was indicated by assessing the use of Spanish in a variety (at home, at school, and in everyday activities) of situations by the adolescent. The aspiration for intergenerational mobility was measured through cross classification of the respondent's occupational aspirations with the occupation of the main bread winner in the family. A comparative analysis was made of "upwardly mobile" and "non-mobile" respondents by ethnicity, SES (social economic status), and sex. A comparison of ethnicity scores in relation to the degree of mobility was projected for each SES type. Although the study failed to support the hypothesis, relevant theoretical implications realting to culture were drawn and suggestions were provided for future research.

Madsen, William. The Mexican-Americans of South Texas (2nd Ed.). New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1964.

The author provides details on aspects of behavior and beliefs that make the Mexican American way of life in South Texas distinctive. He elaborates on differences between Mexican Americans and Anglo Americans in regard to familial obligation and individuality, the roles of the sexes, honor and respect, and folk medicine practices. The author indicates that the description is not intended as generalizable to all Mexican Americans. The book is not based on a structured study but written through personal knowledge of the author as a participant observer.

Martinez, R.A. "Hispanic Culture and Health Care: Fact, Fiction, Folklore." St. Louis: C.V. Mosby Co., 1978.

The purpose of this book is to expose the reader to some of the facts and folklore surrounding the Hispanic culture. The intent is to make practitioners aware of the cultural mores and practices. The text is divided into four parts: (1) culture consideration, (2) factors influencing health beliefs, (3) folklore beliefs that influence biopsychosocial realms, and (4) reactions by Hispanics toward health care services.

Sotomayor, Marta. "Language: Culture and Ethnicity in Developing Self-Concept," Social Casework, 1977, 195-203.

The article traces more philosophical and theoretical underpinnings of language, culture, and ethnicity in efforts to highlight the role the three elements play in human behavior. It also emphasizes the role of language and culture in the mental processes, which determine the perception and definition of reality. The focus is on the crucial role that language plays in the process of personality development and functioning.

Staples, R. "The Mexican-American Family: Its Modifications Overview and Space." Phylon, 1971, 32, 179-192.

The author presents a descriptive analysis of the contemporary Mexican American family, a historical perspective, and a prospective outlook for the future. The interpretations and conclusions

were gathered using two methods: (1) use of published materials pertinent to the Mexican American and (2) personal interviews by the writer as a social worker (all interviews were conducted with Mexican American individuals.)

Steiner, Stan. La Raza: The Mexicans. New York: Harper and Row Publishers, 1970.

In this work the author describes, in a historical context, the plight of the Mexican American in his struggle for social justice and economic equality. La Raza is divided into three geographic and thematic interests. One part tells of the land grant struggle headed by Reies Tijerina in New Mexico. Part two shifts to the urban environment of East Los Angeles and the efforts to dramatize and remedy the conditions of the barrios. The third part focuses on Cesar Chavez and the attempts to unionize the migrant workers in the fields.

Ulibarri, Horacio. "Social and Attitudinal Characteristics of Spanish-Speaking Migrant and Ex-Migrant Workers in the Southwest." Sociology and Social Research, 1966-50.

A sample of sixty-five migrant and ex-migrant workers were interviewed in depth in order to ascertain their social and attitudinal characteristics. The sample group expressed an overwhelming fear of want. Their destitution basically dominated their orientation toward life, resulting in negative attitudes and disorganization (in comparison to satisfaction of life and career). They indicated little motivation toward helping themselves, and their existence was one of fatalism and anomie, according to the author.

La Familia: A Convoy or an Albatross?

Paper presented at the Symposium on
The Mexican American Child in Texas

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Is the Mexican American family to the child a convoy, a group of people who provide positive support, affirming, endorsing behavior and giving material or symbolic aid? [1] Is it the albatross of the Ancient Mariner, that bird of good omen mortally wounded by the Mariner. The bird hung around his neck as a reminder of his hasty and grave decision which broubht all misfortune and a terrible journey on a hostile sea.[2]

But who is the Mariner if the family symbolically is to become the albatross? Is the Mariner the child, who as a vanguard of change or anglocization, brings conflict to the family unit weakening it as a support in a mobile technological society, as Celia Heller proclaimed? [3] Is the Mariner the parents in their cultural role, the culture itself, or the dominant society? Does the society, as the Mariner, bring upon itself the role of addressing the conditions of a colonized minority group which appears to be continually wronged in a society of plenty? Is the family, the symbolic bird itself, the blame for its own demise?

In contrast, if the family is a convoy, how is this role defined and an explanation given of its affect on the life of the child?

Why is a question of definition important to consider in discussing the child and the family in our recognition of the year of the child? Perhaps because those who study and write about the child and the family often use the symbolic convoy or albatross definitions in their hypothesis or as a theme. Therefore, those who fight to butress la familia struggle with these definitions and explanations in order to meaningfully plan services that strengthen this essential unit and the child.

This paper, in considering these two dichotomous symbolic definitions of the family, will address the following questions: 1) What has been said currently through studies and in the literature to support these viewpoints?; 2) Waht can be observed generally about these two viewpoints?; 3) How can the family and child be statistically defined and 4) What approaches have been used recently to address the social functioning problems of the Mexican American child and family?

Beginning with the definitions of the albatross we find the symbolic bird herself, la familia presented as a stumbling block to an individual's mobility by Rubel, Madsen, and Simmons, who published three major books in the late 1960's and early 1970's.[4] In fact, to these three authors the family becomes, in contrast to the family unit of the dominant society, a pathological unit. Repeatably in their discussion of the family one finds the dominant unyielding father, the neurotically submissive mother, and the children laced early into their respective sex role. Other authors of this period such as Cabrerra, 1963, and Beman and Goodman, 1968, essentially agree with these authors.[5]

This picture of the family presented by these authors seems to be one of a colorful, mythical, patriarchal Mexican American family. No family unit, it could be argued, exhibits all the characteristics attributed by these authors to the general Mexican American family. Nor can it be proved that, as the authors Rubel, Madsen and Simmons imply, that each family unit is child centered with sex typed, permissive and indulgent training patterns for young children. It is true that some traditional patriarchal units might be found if they are first generation families (parents born in Mexico) living in an isolated rural pocket in the Southwest, but even in this case, allowance has to be made for idiosyncratic variations among the families.

Many authors who center their concerns of the Mexican American family on education often blame the parents and/or the child for educational achievement problems. For example, Ulibarri in his research, by using middle class indicators for predicting success of children in school, found the parents the key to these problems, describing them as present time oriented and having poor attitudes toward education. [6] Authors who present their view of the family as a stumbling block to the education of their children forget, as Arciniega states, that the school is a microcosm of the society and the primary vehicle in transmitting goals and values of that society. The failure of the educational system with the ethnic child is often explained, according to Arciniega, through a

"traditional tractive response," by placing the blame on the child's milieu. A milieu in which the family, as a socialization agent, helps develop in the child traits that hinder his/her progress in school.[7]

In viewing the culture as the symbolic Mariner, the failure of the family is explained as occuring becasue the child's parents, due to their cultural orientation, are fatalistic and not self-motivated. In fact, when one of these parents scores high on an external control and authoritarian value scale, it is often considered as evidence of this cultural orientation. Competitive, self-motivated individuals in control of their fate score low on such scales; therefore, when researchers such as Carrillo-Beron find 25 Anglo women in their sample scoring high on the external control scale, they are baffled. Carrillo-Beron's explanation in this case was that these women, due to their active roles in the women's liberation movement, were feeling powerless when they were tested.[8] If this explanation is valid, then how can the score of the Mexican American women be attributed to culture?

Belliaeff sees societal change, specifically urbanization, as the symbolic Mariner. He discusses the effect of the following factors on the family: the role of the working wife; the effect of poverty; and the anglocization of the children. Belliaeff favors viewing the family as a convoy that is being threatened by change.[9]

Gonzales, Knowlton, and Valdez, who wrote about the New Mexican family, see this unit as a convoy. The New Mexican village family they described maintained a communal style of living. It supported a cultural that had positive affects on the life functioning of these rural New Mexicans. The authors see urbanization and economic exploitation of these villages as the force precipitating their demise and negatively altering the New Mexican family.[10]

Two extensive studies by Anderson and Johnson both indicate the concern of the parents, in the "convoy type" family unit, about the education of the child. The aspirations of the parents were that their children be able to graduate from high school and even college.[11] This finding is in direct contrast to the negative role the family is given by Ulibarri and Heller.[12]

Hurtado, in working with a small sample of Mexican Americans, reported on the "convoy type" which found it valuable to live nearby and frequently communicate with relatives.[13] In the same manner, Gilbert, in looking at a Californian Mexican American population in two sites, a city and town, found that interaction with a kin network was based on goods and personal services exchanged. The exchange of personal services was highly reciprocal between silblings. The more prosperous the family, the higher the rate of exchange. There was a high exchange of goods between families in the barrio and in the case of low income headed households.[14]

Keefe, Padilla, and Carlos, in studying the Mexican American population in three Californian cities also found there was an exchange of information and counseling provided through primary kin. The counseling usually occurred only with one relative. Often the member of the primary kin group used as a counselor was not seen as the best alternative, i.e., there was some reservations about using kin in this way. Given this finding, it might be speculated that the family unit member who is separated from his/her primary kin or who did not have a good relationship with these kin, is in trouble. In contrast, the Anglos studied did not distinguish between bonds of friendship and primary kin and seem to be in a better position to get needed information and emotional support. Here, the dual role of the family as a positive and negative force is well depicted.[15]

Samora, Lamanna, and Frimkin point out the convoy function of the family unit as a stress – reducing entity that aids the process of emigration from rural to urban centers.[16] Rendon, essentially agreeing with these authors, found in his research on rural to urban migration that successful adjustments to a new city occurred when the male head of the household was young, had a good education, was prepared for a good status job, and had a wife who had an extended kinship network in the city to which they moved.[17]

Cotera, Gibson, and Sauceda, focused their attention on the family by looking at the role of the woman. She is seen as key supportive force in the family, and Sauceda reports that she can play the role of bridging the gap between needed social services and the family. [18]

As the two views of the family, as a convoy or albatross, are supported through research in current literature, the confusion around the family's role in the life of the child grows. Perhaps we can agree with the authors of the book, The Mexican American People, Grebler, Moore, and Guzman that "Mexican Americans share the national experience of complex patterns of change and of shifts in the structure of family relationships." [19] As Minuchin noted, when change occurs in the larger society the movement of change is toward the family never from it to the larger society; [20] therefore, the family unit adapts and often waits for change. For example, the family of the migrant child will continue to adapt until this society demands support for these families by confronting economic forces that maintain this situation.

The changes that occur in the family as it adapts, according to Baca Zinn, cannot be easily explained, as in the past, as "symptoms of acculturation," "a cause of accultration," or a "result of acculturation." [21] Keefe and Casas, in agreement with Baca Zinn, explain that culture seen in "wholistic" terms, as a result of the interrelationships of cultural, social, economic, religious, and political life the community, cannot be generalized from to explain Mexican American families as culturally distinct groups. [22] The authors Ramirez, Castaneda, Salinas, and Flores indicate that the factors that create the variation found in the families are many and among these are some of the following: 1) distance of the family from the Mexican border; 2) length of residence in the United States; 3) identification with Mexican, Mexican American and Spanish-American history; 4) degree of urbanization of the unit; 5) degree of economic and political strength of the Mexican American community; 6) the degree of prejudice in the community; 7) the degree of contact with non-Mexican Americans. [23]

Historically, the Mexican American family comes from a rich background which begins in the home of Spaniards and Mexican Indian nations, such as the Aztecs. The outcome of this history is the rich variation found in this unit as it adapted to its surroundings. The informal foster care and adoption system that developed through the rearing of hijos de crianza strengthened the community in which the family developed. The Mexican principal of joint ownership of property between husband and wife, now the community property law, stabilized and strengthened the family. [24]

Statistically, the Mexican American family of today can be said to be a two parent family (82% are two parent units), with three or more children under the age of 18. Almost half of these units have children six years old or younger (43%). In 1970, 25% of these families had incomes of $4,000 or less and a medium income of $5,962 compared to the $9,590 for the average American family. The average number of years of school completed was 7.2 in Texas and 10.6 in California. Also, we find in 1976 that Hispanics paid more for housing, relative to their means. This housing was older, was poorly maintained, and was deficient in heating and bathroom facilities in comparison to other housing. [25]

Statistically it is seen that the family needs strong social institutional support and that it is not getting this support. Present day economic and educational problems of the urban family call for further adaptation by that unit.

In concluding our discussion, our focus should turn to how social welfare programs can be planned to best aid the family and the child. It is found that several authors warn that although the family's psychosocio developmental stages might be similar to those in other families, these stages are entered and exited from through unique cultural screens and the provider of services must be in tune with these unique cultural nuances. [26]

As Hershovits suggested, behavior is based on experience and experience is culture bound and

the very definition of what constitutes a "problem" and what does not, and what is abnormal is relative to the time, place, and the family as well as the culture of reference. Also, authors such as Morales warn that understanding cultural factors that define individuals in therapy might prevent situations in which one finds a field independent therapist and a field dependent (field sensitive) client or clients trying to communicate. [27]

Those who have recently studied how to provide better services to the Mexican American child and family write about new approaches and updated old approaches. For example, Ramirez suggests that we reinforce the existing formal and informal self help networks instead of bypassing them. Morales, through his research, agrees that this might be a rational approach because if the situation is one that cannot be handled by the indigenous group it will be referred out. He found that in using a number of vignettes of various life stress causing situations with his population sample that problems seen as emotional/psychiatric were referred and often seen as not having very positive outcomes. Keefe, Padilla, and Carlos remind us that values that bind the Mexican American to the primary kin network as a resource, leave some individuals lost when they are isolated or estranged through conflict from that network. Perhaps both the strengthening of informal self-help networks and the encouragement of the use of social service needs to be undertaken concurrently. [28]

Fernandez and Barnes discuss building on these natural self-help informal networks by using what they called the "enchilada approach" intervention with troubled adolescents. Using this approach, youth advocacy groups are formed through building from family units to community clusters. The approach called for expansion, inclusion, interdependence and the building of respeto for those involved.

An approach which focused on preparing the child for school was discussed by Arciniega, Casas, and Castillo. Parenting training is seen as a key to helping with the educational problems of children. The authors suggest that finding a model for teaching parenting skills would enable parents to better prepare their children for school. One model suggested that could be used in this manner was called the Houston Parent-Child Development Center Model. One hesitates to embrace this approach to preparing the child for educational programs since it is known that differences in achievement can be directly influenced by the environment and economics and not by parenting styles. In fact, the Chicano staff involved in building the model questioned the use of such a model to "shape" the parent to give up their values and assimilate into the mainstream. They suggest that a better approach might be to provide parents with skills to participate in changing the schools to incorporate a pluralistic philosophy, since "the currently existing dimension of the cultural system provides healthy relevant experiences for a child, which in turn promotes competent feelings in the child." [29]

The search needs to continue through studies in order to provide more knowledge about the Mexican American child and family on which to build better quality services. Services need to be planned with a specific group of Mexican American families and their children in mind. In any given setting it is necessary to plan services in this way, because just as each segment of the dominant population is unique so is the population of the Chicano community. It is no longer available to see ethnicity, ethnic identity, and acculturation as independent factors explaining such concerns as emotional problems, educational, and financial problems in the family. This approach can make services more costly, yet it is essential to plan for quality services for the Mexican American family. As the Ancient Mariner learned and reported far and wide, a hasty decision to shoot the albatross carried with it heavy costs.

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APPENDIX B
Resource Materials Unit II

SELECTED ANNOTATED BIBLIOGRAPHY
Unit II

Boca, Gilberto M., Forty Families: A Comparative Study of Mexican-American and Anglo Parents of an Institutionalized Retarded Child. In Abstracts for Social Workers Vol. 12, Spring-Winter, 1976. Doctoral Dissertation from University of Denver, August 1975.

A cross-cultural exploratory study was made of 20 Mexican American and 20 Anglo families in New Mexico who had institutionalized a retarded child. Its basic objective was to compare the experiences, beliefs, attitudes, and perceptions of the two groups concerning their retarded child. Variables of age, education, income, sex, and religion were also associated with the response pattern. The samples consisted of two parent families who had one retarded child in a major state institution.

Lengthy personal interviews were conducted with each of the 80 individuals. A questionnaire was developed which contained open ended items as well as a few structured items. The Spanish language was used with most Mexican Americans. Findings revealed that, with few exceptions, Mexican American and Anglo parents of a retarded child did not differ significantly in their understanding of the problem, feelings about institutionalization, and use of community resources. Although religious beliefs appeared relatively important to all parents in considering the etiology of retardation, Mexican Americans differed significantly from Anglos in their adherence to religious explanations. One-half of the Mexican American families reported they used folk medicine while a few reported using a curandero. The extended family influence on the Mexican Americans was apparent.

Dworkin, Anthony. "Stereotypes and Self-images Held by Native Born and Foreign Born Americans," Sociology and Social Research. 1965, 49. 214-224.

Stereotypes and self-image perceptions held by 280 native-born (U.S. born) and foreign-born (Mexican-born) Mexican American students and community residents were documented. Statistical comparison indicated that significantly more foreign-born subjects hold favorable stereotypes and self-images than do native-born subjects. Findings were attributed to differences in the groups' definition of their prior socioeconomic settings (using Anglos as frame of reference by NBMA and Mexicans as frame of reference by FMBA).

Ginsberg, G.P., N.F. McGinn, E. Harbury. "Recalled Parent-Child Interaction of Mexican and United States Males." Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology, 1970, 1, 139-152.

This article reports on a study that dealt with dimensions of recall of parent-child interaction, from the viewpoint of the child. These were obtained by means of a Parent Image Differential (PID). PID data on a North American group and a Mexican group, all males, were factor analyzed and analytically compared. Results indicated highly stable dimensions, some culturally specific, some specific to sex of parent, but almost all specific to a particular context of parent-child interaction (how the parent treated, taught, or disciplined the child). The study also discusses and elaborates on cross-cultural differences.

Giovannoni, Jeanne M. and A. Billingsley. "Child Neglect Among the Poor: A Study of Parental Adequacy in Families of Three Ethnic Groups." Child Welfare, 1970, 49, 196-204.

This is one of the few comparative studies in the literature. The study group was comprised of 186 low income mothers selected from social worker caseloads in an urban area. The caseload was separated and rated on degree of parental adequacy ranging from "adequate" through "potential neglect" to "neglect" by public health nurses. The sample was composed of Blacks (N=66), Caucasians (N=54), and Spanish-speaking (N=66). The results indicated that the "neglect" group had a higher level of stress due to environmental factors than did the other two groups. They were also found to have fewer contacts with stresses than the "adequate" group.

Hoppe, Sue Keir Ph.D. and Robert L. Leon, M.D. "Coping in the Barrio." Child Psychiatry and Human Development, Vol. 7, No. 4, Summer 1977, 264-275.

A report on the preliminary findings of a study of coping abilities of Mexican American families. The purpose of the study was to identify variables related to styles of behavior that can be characterized as adaptive. A complex of factors differentiated families who were judged to be dealing effectively with their environment ("copers") from those who were not ("noncopers"). The factors included the health status of the children, various child rearing attitudes and practices, and patterns of decision making as they related to a more general ability of parents to conceptualize and organize time.

Skolnick, Arlene, "The Myth of the Vulnerable Child." Psychology Today, 1978, February, 56-65.

This article denotes the fact that no matter what remedies the experts prescribe in reference to child rearing practices, there is no way to truly justify this practice. Two models of parents influence emerge from the traditional American obsession of child rearing practice in the 20th century: (1) the first based on the Freudian ideology that the child is seen as a sensitive being, easily damaged not only by traumatic events and emotional stress, but also by overdoses of affection and (2) the second based on behaviorists' belief that the child's mind is a blank slate (tabula rasa). Both models, despite their disagreements, grant parents an omnipotent role in child development. Both say that (1) only if parents do the right things at the right time will their children turn out to be happy and successful; (2) parents can raise superior beings, free of the mental frailties of previous generations; and (3) parents have only themselves to blame if something goes wrong with the child.

Steward, Margaret and David Steward. "The Observation of Anglo-Mexican, and Chinese-American Mothers Teaching Their Young Sons." Child Development, 1973, Vol. 44, No. 2, 329-337.

Report on observed parents teaching preschool-age children a sorting and a motor-skill game. Six mothers and their own 3 year old sons from seven ethnic groups participated. The participants were identified as drawn from a variety of groups such as, middle class Mexican American, bilingual Mexican American, Spanish-speaking Mexican American, and English-speaking Chinese-American. Coders were selected for each ethnic group. Data was coded using a parent interaction code which

analyzed programmatic variables. The single best predictor of maternal teaching or child was ethnicity. Children in this study experienced different learning environments which may result in different skills and expectations brough by them into the classroom. (23 ref.).

Stewart, Jo Moore and Shirley M. Sandage. Child of Hope. New York: A.S. Barnes and Company, 1968.

The book, Child of Hope, takes a look into a side of the great society that most Americans would rather not look at or even think about – the problems faced by migrant workers: people who are poverty stricken, largely under educated, living under conditions bearing more relationship to the early thirties. It realistically reports on problems faced by migrants today.

This thought-provoking book is the first primarily pictorial study of migrant-worker families. The book denotes the tensions, pressures, and frustrations of a Mexican American family when they face the terrifying decision of leaving "the stream" in quest of new life.

Stoker, David H. and Arnold Meadow, Ph.D. "Cultural Difference in Child Guidance Clinic Patients." International Journal of Social Psychiatry. 20, Autumn-Winter 74, 186-202.

A comparison of the psychopathology, psychological and familial processes, and therapeutic treatment of Mexican American and Anglo-American children seen in three child guidance clinics. Case files of Mexican American and Anglo-American children were randomly selected from files of three child guidance clinics in the Southwestern part of the country. Cases of organic pathology or mental deficiency were discarded, yeilding a final sample of 152 Mexican American and 152 Anglo-American cases, divided evenly between male and female cases. Each case was matched roughly for gross yearly family income.

A list of 74 symptomatic behaviors was constructed through reading of case histories. In general, the data indicated significant and consistent differences in psychopathology between the four different sex-culture samples. The findings were related to culturally determined aspects of family structure, family interaction, role conflicts, and personality structure.

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Working with abusive parents is discussed from a psychiatric point of view. The psychological characteristics of abusive parents were found to be the following: 1) a special form of immaturity and dependency: 2) low self-esteem and a sense of incompetence; 3) difficulty in seeking pleasure and finding satisfaction; 4) misperception of the infant, especially as manifested in role reversal; 5) social isolation; 6) a fear of spoiling infants; 7) a belief in the value of punishment; and 8) a lack of ability to respond with empathy to infant needs. Treatment must successfully match the parent, the worker, and treatment modality. Many modes of psychotherapy are suggested, including group therapy, psychoanalysis, behavior modification techniques, and role modeling.

THE INTERNATIONAL YEAR OF THE CHILD: ITS SIGNIFICANCE TO MEXICAN AMERICANS

Guadalupe Gibson, A.C.S.W.

Keynote Address
The Mexican American Child in Texas
Symposium

Celebrating the International Year of the Child

The Worden School of Social Service

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THE INTERNATIONAL YEAR OF THE CHILD: ITS SIGNIFICANCE TO MEXICAN AMERICANS*

Guadalupe Gibson, A.C.S.W.

Introduction: THE IYC

In 1959, the General Assembly of the United Nations (UN) unanimously adopted a Declaration of the Rights of the Child which stated that every child has the right to:

> Affection, love and understanding;
> Adequate nutrition and medical care;
> Free education;
> Full opportunity for play and recreation;
> A name and a nationality:
> Special care if handicapped;
> Be among the first to receive relief in time of disaster;
> Learn to be a useful member of society and develop individual abilities;
> Be brought up in a spirit of peace and universal brotherhood and
> Enjoy these rights regardless of race, color, sex, religion, national and social origin[1]

In 1976, the General Assembly of the UN, in anticipation of the 20th anniversary of the Declaration of the Rights of the Child,[2] passed a resolution declaring 1979 as the International Year of the Child (IYC). The idea for it came from a Belgian priest, Canon Joseph Moerman, head of the International Catholic Child Bureau, a non-governmental organization which has consultative status at the UN. No international conference was considered in drafting the resolution, primarily becasue there was fear and concern that the whole affair would become politicized, as had with the International Women's Year Conference in 1975. Each of the 150 member countries which agreed to participate – at least 135 countries have so declared – was to appoint its own Commission to review the condition of children in its country, to develop plans to rectify inadequacies or out-and out wrongs, and to propose steps necessary to do so;[3] in other words, to examine its policies and to initiate efforts to improve the life of children.[4] The idea was intended to conscientisize society, in general, to the rights and needs of children. The effort was not expected to be confined just to this year, but rather, it was understood that whatever happens will be only a beginning; that the implementation of plans will take time, and the goal is to keep an on-going process focusing on children. The developed nations are expected to assume the added responsibility of sensitizing their people to the needs of children in less-developed countries. The latter will receive assistance from UNICEF, designated as the leading agency to coordinate the IYC. The Executive Board set aside a $3,000.00 fund for helping these countries prepare and develop action programs.[5]

The IYC should be an occasion to re-affirm, not by words alone, but by deeds, that the well-being of today's children – of all children in all countries – is the concern of all people everywhere, and that the well-being of children is inseparably linked with the peace and prosperity of tomorrow's world.[6] In our own country, according to Dr. Menninger, we pay more lip service to meeting the needs of children than actually doing so.[7] Perhaps IYC will promote meaningful changes. Overall, the major aims of IYC are to:

* The term Mexican American is used throughout this narrative with full awareness that Spanish-speaking and Spanish-surnamed people of Mexican descent, a very heterogeneous group, have not agreed on nomenclature. Some prefer to be called Chicanos. Others choose other designations such as Hispanic American, Latin American, Latinos, Mexicanos, Raza, etc.

1. Encourage all countries, rich and poor, to review their programs for the promotion of the well-being of children and to mobilize support for national and local action programs according to each country's conditions, needs and priorities;

2. Heighten awareness of children's special needs among decision-makers and the public;

3. Promote recognition of the vital link between programs for children on the one hand, and economic and social progress on the other;

4. Spur specific, practical measures – with achieveable goals – to benefit children, in both short and long term, on the national level. [8]

The IYC activities are expected to emphasize the intellectual, psychological, and social development of children as well as their physical welfare, and to provide during the 20th anniversary of the Declaration of the Rights of the Child, for each country to initiate or increase their efforts at implementation of the principles of the Declaration. [9] The major legacy of the IYC can, and should be, a permanently higher level of concern with children, and intensified and continuing attention to services for them, on the part of governments and the public alike. [10]

On April 14, 1978, President Carter issued an executive order establishing a Commission to provide a national program for the year-long observance of 1979 as IYC. Mr. Carter appointed 25 persons to form the Commission and designated Jean Childs Young, the wife of Andrew Young, to chair it.[11] The Commission has identified eight major areas of concern: child nurturing in the family and the community; health; education; juvenile justice; recreation, play and the arts for development; fostering equal opportunity and cultural diversity; the impact of media on children; and children around the world. [12] The commission emphasizes that this year is also a time and an opportunity to celebrate the many contributions that children have made to our society. [13]

One of the first tasks undertaken by the Commission was to collect information about American children. Although many children do enjoy the fruits of our bountiful land, it was immediately evident to them, that many American children are victims of indifference, poverty and neglect, and that often problems that beset our children are not limited to poor minority children.[14] The initial findings of the Commission also revealed startling statistics about the status of our children. Almost a third of our population, 68 million approximately, are children under 18, many of whom are experiencing problems of health, nutrition, pregnancy, abuse and other forms of neglect.[15]

In spite of what appears to be a very positive thrust the IYC and the beneficial ultimate outcomes in the interest of children and their families, conservative forces are operating a smear campaign against it. You have probably heard some of the objections to it voiced in San Antonio. One popular commentator frequently reminds the audience that there are inherent dangers to children and their families, in the observance of IYC. Similar commentaries have been made in Houston and undoubtedly in other communities. According to the February issue of the National Association of Social Work News, "using distortions and misrepresentations," right wing groups under innocuous names as the Pro-Family Forum, and a few members of Congress have sought to discredit IYC as 'anti-family'. [16] A letter circulated by Senator Orrin (R-Utah) last year, implied that IYC would give children "the right to sue parents for being 'forced' to go to Church." Other so-called "pro-family" groups are aggressively trying to discredit IYC also, by claiming that IYC is a communistic maneuver intended to overthrow the government by sabotaging the family. "That these accusations are not being taken seriously by most responsible people may alone serve as proof that they are patently absurd." [17] Attesting to the bona fide intent of IYC, and acknowl-

edging the potential by benefical outcomes of its observation, are the fact that Congress approved the formation and funding of the Commission; that Jean Young, who is eminently qualified to do so, agreed to chair the Commission; that an illustrious group of people agreed to serve on the Commission – Dr. Jose Cardenas of San Antonio and Marie Oser of Houston for instance; that over 200 organizations, agencies, associations, and groups endorse it;[18] and that Barbara Pomeroy, a prominent social worker, accepted the appointment as executive director of the Commission.

Mexican American Children

But what about Mexican American children? What is the particular significance of the celebration of IYC to them? Why is it important to them and their families?

The great majority of the nation's 68 million children are white. Black children account for 13.6 percent of all the nation's children.[19] Hispanics* are the second largest sub-group among them. The Hispanic group is expected to become the largest minority, if not by the late 1980's, at least by the turn of the century, according to a recent article in Time magazine.[20] Presently, among Hispanics, 42% of the population is 18 years old or younger – an estimated 19 million of them.[21] It is estimated that among Mexican Americans, 14 percent are under five years of age.[22] Socio-economically, the Mexican Americans range from the well-to-do to the very poor. Although there are some Mexican American millionaires, seven, I believe, according to the Time article, and the number of middle class families is consistently growing, Mexican Americans are disproportionately poor.

Mexican American people, more than any other ethnic group in the United States perhaps with the exception of Native Americans, have been subjected to stresses of racial discrimination, unemployment, economic exploitation, and poverty.[23] In Texas, for instance, even though they constitute only 19% of the population, they comprise 30% of the poor. They have higher rates of unemployment and underemployment.[24] Fairly recent statistics reflect that even those Mexican Americans who have completed four years of college suffer higher rates of unemployment than Anglos who have only high school diplomas.[25] But one of my colleagues will be addressing the issues and problems related to the Mexican American families. I will attempt to keep my remarks focused on children. Mexican American children have been the victims of poverty and all its concomitant problems – health, mental health, social, educational, developmental, and, yes, malnutrition.[26]

The American Orthopsychiatric Association (AOA) continues to consider racism the number one mental health problem in the United States,[27] and the National Association of Social problems of racism and poverty for the 1970's. The celebration of the IYC gives us one more opportunity to reaffirm this goal, for according to Jean Young, both these areas are of special interest to the United States Commission. It recognizes that at the core of many problems that beset our children are racism and poverty.[28] More than 17 million of our children do live in poverty, under conditions that deprive them of medical, dental and mental health care, adequate diet, proper clothing, educational opportunities, legal resources, and probably the most important condition of all, the warmth and security of a loving home.[29] And minority children are three and a half times as likely to be poor as are children in white families.[30]

IYC calls for us to focus attention on the plight of children in underdeveloped nations, and it is important that we do so, but we must not lose sight of those immediate problems facing us.

* The term Hispanic is generally applied by governmental agencies and others, to the total group of Spanish-speaking and/or Spanish-surnamed individuals regardless of cultural or ethnic background or country of origin, and usually includes the Mexican Americans and Mexicans residing in the United States, Puerto Ricans, Cubans, Central and South Americans, etc.

Because the problems of the underdeveloped nations are so gross and pervasive, it becomes easy to minimize our own by comparison. But we do have serious problems here in the United States, for in this "the land of plenty" there are millions of people who are unable to buy the food required for proper nourishment. In 1978, we ranked 18th in infant mortality rates among the developed countries of the world, and 23rd in life expectancy; half of the children from poverty families are not immunized against common childhood diseases; and nearly half of the women who deliver their babies in the city and county hospitals, have had no pre-natal care at all.[31] We do need to give our own problems consideration by attempting to identify solutions.

As social workers we also have a special mission to humanize services, not only to dispense them.[32] To serve Mexican American children in the most effective and humane way possible, we need to understand, not only those needs that they have in common with all children in our nation, but also those needs which are unique to them because of their socio-psycho-cultural experience and of their minority status.[33] Mexican American children are among the most vulnerable in our country. There are some glaring differences between white children and minority children, primarily the latter's disadvantages, being hemmed in by obstacles and frustrations which are often due to poverty and/or discrimination.[34] In Texas, one out of five children lives in poverty and four out of five of these are minority children. Most of the differences, however, are imperceptible, but they are there, and should be recognized, understood and addressed in service delivery.

Needs and Resources of Mexican American Children

What are the specific needs of Mexican American children? What are the resources available to them?

EDUCATION

Probably no other factor has contributed so heavily to the low socioeconomic oppressive state of Mexican Americans than educational deprivation.[35] Lack of educational opportunities, chronic underachievement, low test scores, and the "push out" system have contributed to the highest drop-out rate in the United States.[36] Without question, there have been some improvements in education in recent years. Through bilingual education Mexican American children are being helped to make an easier transition from Spanish-speaking or bilingual homes to the English-speaking school system; few children are likely to be inappropriately tested, and fewer are dropping out of school. Yes, we have won some battles, but we have not yet won the war. There continues to be public opposition to bilingual education. In Texas, the legislature is still wrestling with budgetary issues about bilingual education programs; even very good ones are not as successful as they could be because many ignore the bicultural issues.[37]The economic and social situation has not changed sufficiently for many families. Those who are poor often have to send their children to school ill fed and poorly clothed. At times they keep their children out of school to baby-sit, as they have no other resources in the community, or to have them available to interpret for them when they have business to transact. Bilingual personnel are not always available in business or in the social services.[38] One of the severest problems in education has been inadequate testing procedures. These have ordinarily been based on Anglo, middle class norms, that consequently make Mexican American children appear deficient, deviant, or both. For many Mexican American children education continues to be a frustrating experience which alienates them for school, contributes to their loss of self-esteem, to their feelings of hopelessness, and to their self-denigrating

attitudes, often with devastating consequences to them and to society, for delinquency, drug abuse and many other problems often result.[40]

Contrary to popular belief, Mexican American parents do believe in education, porque el saber es poder, because knowledge is power. They want for their children what other American parents want: that their children be well prepared for life according to their interest and abilities.[41]

HEALTH AND MENTAL HEALTH

The issues of health care delivery that impinge on Mexican Americans have been critical for a long time. The problems are all too apparent, though not yet fully documented.[42] Mortality rates are high and life expectancy for Mexican Americans is an estimated 57 years compared to 72 for the general population.[43] For Mexican American farmworkers it is an estimated 49 years of age.[44] Infant mortality among Hispanics as a whole, is believed to be the highest in the nation.[45] Malnutrition bordering on starvation for some children, has been documented.[46] The difficulties which result from apathy, inability to learn, and other severe problems which are the consequences of persistent malnutrition, often become irreversible.[47] The rising costs of medical are continue to make medical resources unavailable to poor Mexican American families.

Mental health services remain unavailable geographically, emotionally or both in spite of improvement through the community mental health centers. Services which are culturally relevant and linguistically syntonic are not always offered. The problems of misdiagnosis persists in spite of acknowledged improvement in the administration of tests and other diagnostic measures. The report of the President's Commission on Mental Health emphasized the continuing high vulnerability of Hispanics, to problems of mental health.[48]

CHILD WELFARE AND OTHER SOCIAL SERVICES

Serious, persistent problems in Child Welfare and other social services also continue. Kadushin has pointed to the problems in services to children who are not white, and who are poor, for whom services are unavailable or "who fall between the cracks."[49] Tremendous strides have been made and are being made. The fact that we are here together attests to the fact that solutions to these problems are being sought. But appropriations of funds are still inadequate.[50] Texas, for instance, one of the wealthiest states in the nation, ranks 47th among the 50 states, in the amount of public financial support for dependent children.[51] Almost 4,000 Texas handicapped children have not been to school and many other examples can be cited.[52]

Inadequate services generally, such as poor housing and juvenile justice are also problems which concern Mexican American people.

STRENGTHS AND RESOURCES

There are many strengths and resources available to the Mexican Americans within the family and the community, no doubt; for otherwise, as a group, we would not have survived. The family, the extended family included, the church, the barrio itself has sustained Mexican American people. We need to identify and recognize these resources and to capitalize on them. Helping families to use effectively the networks available to them is a timely approach.

IMPLICATIONS FOR PRACTICE

It seems evident that to serve Mexican American children effectively, we need to serve Mexican American families well. We have to understand Mexican American families. Certainly these families share with all American families concern for their children, their problems, and often the lack of solutions. All of us have common human needs. These commonalities are important, but today we have common human needs. These commonalities are important, but today we are trying to focus on those aspects that are unique to Mexican Americans, those psycho-socio-cultural factors that make for the differences, in addition to the consideration of their minority status. But you will hear from my colleagues about some of the distinctiveness among Mexican Americans.

When we work with Mexican American children, we have to begin by accepting the premise that the philosophy of the "melting pot" is a myth, and that we live in a pluralistic society.[53] Marie Oser, the Commissioner mentioned earlier, emphasizes that American children need a support system of services based on a philosophical framework that recognizes the broad pluralism in this country – ethnic, racial and religious.[54] We need to learn how to deal with issues of diversity in practice, to learn to recognize, accept, value and respect differences, and most importantly, to modify our attitudes to reflect that we really do. It is necessary to recognize inter-group diversity and the uniqueness of each human being with whom we work. Whereas commonalities among Americans provide the mortar that hold us together as a society, diversity is the ingredient that contributes to the beauty and to the spice of life.

Among the differences we have to consider is language or dialect. For Mexican Americans this is most important, for how can we serve them effectively if we are unable to communicate with them. Bilingualism is a fact of life for Mexican Americans. Even those who speak no English, as well as those who speak no Spanish live in a bilingual world. Conceptually, both languages are often reflected in their speech.[55] Some recognition is being given now to this, but intensive consideration needs to be given to language nuances that may interefere with communication.

Appropriate services to Mexican Americans require that we recognize their strengths to capitalize on them, as mentioned earlier. As social workers we have modeled society in general, in our ethnocentric approach to practice. We have tended to devalue what has been important to Mexican American people – person-orientation, for instance, and the attachment to the family, to the extended family, to compadres and comadres and even to intimate friends. We have agreed with the dominant group who have identified these traits as pathological. We have labeled people "infantile" and "dependent" and have aimed to help them to incorporate the dominant group's value of "rugged individualism" and urged them to "stand on their own two feet." A shift toward "assimilation" was actually what we recommended as the answer to their problems.

Recently, the social work literature has been reflecting a new interest in "natural networks" and self-help approaches as effective ways of helping families. The popularity of these interventive methods gained momentum after the Report from the President's Commission on Mental Health emphasized the importance of community support systems and the strengths which individuals and families bring to bear on the stresses of society.[56] The strengths of the natural networks to which people belong and on which they depend – friends, neighbors, community organizations and churches, were also stressed in a report given by Mrs. Carter.[57] So the strategies that Mexican Americans, and other minorities too, have considered essential for survival in what has often been a hostile environment, are no longer considered dysfunctional, but rather as resourceful and positive. Valle refers to these interrelationships among Mexican Americas as "webworks" because he sees the relationships so closely knit, closer and stronger than networks.[58]

Another important development in the consideration of service delivery is the renewed interest in prevention, particularly from the developmental standpoint. The report of the President's Commission on Mental Health highlights the need for preventive approaches.[59] The Commission

on IYC also reinforces the view. In a letter to the President, Jean Young stated" . . . I believe that investing in our children is one of the most practical actions we as a nation can take. With children, an ounce of prevention costs far less than a pound of cure."[60] Other publications from H.H.S. emphasize these approaches also, particularly those from the Office of Human Development (OHDS). Arabella Martinez, Assistant Secretary (HDS), at the National Conference of Social Welfare (NCSW) recently held in Philadelphia, highlights the preventive approach also. She introduced a "continuum of need and care" paradigm.[61] It appears to have a great deal of potential for work with minorities, with Mexican Americans particularly.

Work with children requires that we assume the role of advocates also. Work with Mexican-American children requires it even more. Oser, mentioned earlier, urged social workers, not only to develop advocacy skills themselves, but that we also teach parents how to advocate.[62] She emphasized that social workers and parents together, need to make an impact on policy – local, state and national. She mentioned as an example, the serious consequences for children, of Proposition 13. The foolishness of closing swimming pools and other recreational facilities, including some libraries, and increasing security to avoid vandalism seems obvious; yet, this is how problems are being solved.[63] Parents and social workers need to advocate to eliminate situations that present a measure of false economy. An issue before the public currently is subsidies for adoptions. How much cheaper, financially and psychologically, it would be to subsidize poor, or near poor Mexican American families to adopt children than to keep those youngsters in institutions or foster homes.

There are many other issues in regards to children for which we have to advocate. We have to push for policies and programs that keep sight of the need of focus on the whole child and his family; those programs which reflect a life-cycle approach. This is necessary for <u>all</u> children, of course, but it is an imperative for those children who are vulnerable, who are at risk, the Mexican-American children among them.

Social workers serving Mexican American children and their families, should identify and learn to use new models developed for the specific purpose of making cultural assessments. The assessment process needs to include understanding of the child's and the family's level of acculturation, their total reality, and their minority status, all of which affect them in countless ways, even if so imperceptibly. The more comprehensive and accurate the assessment, the more effective the interventive methodology can be.

We also need to make adaptations of some traditional approaches to our work with Mexican Americans.[64] True, we have been criticized by them for the indiscriminate use of traditional interventive modalities, and with good reason.[65] But "practice wisdom" indicates that we need not "throw out the baby with the bath water," that if we are flexible and creative, we can modify approaches in culturally sensitive ways, particularly as we learn to make more accurate cultural assessments. We need to develop and eclectic approach to both assessment and intervention.[66]

CONCLUSION

To conclude, and I know I have talked too much, even though I still feel I have said it all, our work with children demands that we recognize and respect our children, encourage them to speak out – they can do this without being disrespecful – deal with them. According to Oser, if we listen to the, we will hear a consistent theme: Care about us! Pay attention to us! Reward our successes! Support us when we fail! Don't be hypocritical! Be there when we need you! Provide us with models of understanding and caring and motivation![67] When we work with Mexican American children, we need to hear what they say in chorus with <u>all</u> American children, and, in addition,

hear them when they say, "Please don't put us down simply because we are brown!" We need to help them develop self-esteem and a positive self-image by not disparaging their culture, by accepting them as a significant component of the total fabric of our society with a potential to strengthen it, and to enhance and beautify it. Together we can contribute to making the IYC a significant beginning for a better life for all children throughout the world, for all American children more specifically, and in the process, to improve the quality of life for all Chicanitos, for all Mexican American children, as well, not only for the present, but also into the 21st century and beyond.

Thank you.

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APPENDIX C

RESOURCE MATERIALS UNIT III

A BRIEF LIST OF SELECTED CHILDREN'S HEALTH SERVICES: BASIC LIST TO PLAN INTERVENTION FOR CHILDREN'S HEALTH RELATED PROBLEMS*

I. City-County Health Departments

A. Visiting public health nurses – These nurses provide at-home and referral.

B. Well Child Conferences – Clinics that provide physical examinations for well children, screening for disease, and give immunizations.

C. WICS – Women, Infants, Children Nutritional Program – This program provides food coupons to women and their children (child or children must be under 5), pre-natal and post-natal care for child up to 6 months, physicals, disease screening, and nutritional health programs.

II. Texas Department of Human Resources

A. EPSDT – Early Periodic Screening, Diagnosis and Treatment program. Available to those who are under 21 years of age and receive funds through the Aid to Families with Dependent Children program. Provides a complete annual physical, and if needed, referral for treatment with follow-up.

B. Homemaker Services available through TDHR.

III. Texas Mental Health-Mental Retardation Department

A. Mental Retardation community based-programs. These programs provide social services, health services, day care, testing, vocational and special training for the retarded child in the community. Programs like Child Find of which Family Education Assistance and Training (FEAT) is a local branch, helps locate the retarded child and match the child with a community-based, school-based special program.

B. Mental Health-Through the 1963 Mental Health Act, community mental health clinics were established; group homes, halfway homes and one-fourth way homes, created to assist the population in returning to the community. Day and night hospitals used creatively for some of the population. More follow-up and after care planned.

IV. Federal Nutritional Programs

A. School Lunches began in 1946 through the National School Lunch Act.

B. Food Stamp Program – Food Stamp Act, 1964 – Department of Agriculture administers the program.

C. Food Programs for Children

1. National School Lunch Program, 1946 – Department of Agriculture, Administration through the state educational agency.

2. Child Nutrition Act, 1966 – Title V.

   a. Special milk program.

   b. School breakfast program.

* Drawn from the lecture notes of Rosie Lee C. Salinas.

THE CHILD FOCUSED SOCIAL SERVICE NETWORK

SELECTED EXAMPLES LIST*

III. Health Resources

A. Children

1. Physical-Women, Infants and Children Services (WICS); Early Periodic Screening, Diagnosis and Treatment (Dept. of Human Resources); Well-Baby Conferences, etc.

2. Mental

a. Outpatient: Mental Health/Mental Retardation Centers, Child Guidance Center, Crippled Children's Services, etc.

b. Inpatient: special institutional placement.

B. Adolescents

1. Physical-special clinics

2. Mental

a. Outpatient: special guidance programs, substance abuse programs, Mental Health/ Mental Retardation Centers.

b. Inpatient: adolescent unit, San Antonio State Hospital.

III. Financial Resources-Aid to Families with Dependent Children; Old Age, Survivors and Disability Insurance; Supplementary Security Income.

III. The Juvenile Justice System

A. Separate Court System

B. Juvenile Probation Services

IV. Education and Training Resources

A. Head Start, private day care

B. Upward Bound, Job Corps, Neighborhood Youth Corps, Texas Vocational Rehabilitation

IV. Nutritional Programs

A. Food Stamps

B. School Lunches

VI. Alterante Care System

A. The system for children with legal problems – institutions and group homes.

B. The system that supports the emotionally ill child-private and public.

C. The foster home care system.

D. The adoption service system-private and public.

VII. National Monitoring, Chartering, and Funding Programs

A. Family Asociation of America

B. Administration for Children, Youth and Families

C. The Children's Bureau

D. The Child Welfare League of America

* Drawn from the lecture notes of Rosie Lee C. Salinas.

WORDEN SCHOOL OF SOCIAL SERVICE
OUR LADY OF THE LAKE UNIVERSITY
OF SAN ANTONIO

DEFINING CHILD ABUSE AND NEGLECT

Child Abuse and Neglect is any act of commission or omission by individuals, institutions, or society as a whole, and any conditions resulting from such acts or inaction which deprives children of equal rights and/or interferes with their optimal development.

(David Gil, Violence Against Children, Harvard University Press, 1973.)

Characteristics of Abusing Parent or Parents (Gil, "Legally Reported Child Abuse: A Nationwide Survey," 1968)

*all socio-economic levels
*either parent the abuser
*collision between parents common
*majority of abusers who are married suffer marital difficulties
*parents tend to be young
*unwanted pregnancy common
*parents often suffer from social isolation
*parents were often the children of abusing parents

Characteristics of Abused Children

*Usually 3 years of age or younger
*one child often the target
*child doesn't provoke abuse
*wrong sex child; unwanted child or child not normal

Contrast Between Neglecting and Abusing Parents

Abusive Parents	Neglecting Parents
*physical abuse	*no deliberate physical abuse
*deny child normal activities	*poor general care of the children
*negative language used in describing child	*make positive statements about children
*want to help	*allow children to be aided
*aggressive and blame others for their problems	*often feels helpless

Excerpt from the Draft Model Child Protective Services Act

Section 4. Definitions

When used in this Act and unless the specific context indicates otherwise:

(a) "Child" means a person under the age of 18.

(b) An "abused or neglected child" means a child whose physical or mental health or welfare is harmed or threatened with harm by the acts or omissions of his parent or other person responsible for his welfare.

(c) "Harm" to a child's health or welfare can occur when the parent or other person responsible for his welfare:

(i) Inflicts, or allows to be inflicted, upon the child, physical or mental injury, including injuries sustained as a result of excessive corporal punishment; or

(ii) Commits, or allows to be committed, against the child, a sexual offense, as defined by state law; or

(iii) Fails to supply the child with adequate food, clothing, shelter, education (as defined by state law), or health care, though financially able to do so or offered financial or other reasonable means to do so; for the purposes of this Act, "adequate health care" includes any medical or non-medical health care permitted or authorized under state law: or

(iv) Abandons, the child, as defined by state law; or

(v) Fails to provide the child with adequate care, supervision, or guardianship by specific acts or omissions of a similarly serious nature requiring the intervention of the child protective service or a court.

(d) "Threatened harm" means a substantial risk of harm.

(e) "A person responsible for a child's welfare" includes the child's parent; guardian; foster parent; an employee of a public or private residential home, institution or agency; or other person responsible for the child's welfare.

(f) "Physical injury" means death, disfigurement, or the impairment of any bodily organ.

(g) "Mental injury" means an injury to the intellectual or psychological capacity of a child as evidenced by an observable and substantial impairment in his ability to function within a normal range of performance and behavior, with due regard to his culture.

WORDEN SCHOOL OF SOCIAL SERVICE

OUR LADY OF THE LAKE UNIVERSITY

OF SAN ANTONIO

Child Welfare
SW 4380

GLOSSARY OF SELECTED LEGAL TERMS IN CHILD ABUSE AND NEGLECTED CASES

Adjudicatory Hearing – The Juvenile or Family Court hearing in which it is decided whether or not the allegations of the petition (the complaint setting forth the specific acts of abuse and neglect against the parent) are true. The adjudicatory hearing is also known in some courts as the "jurisdictional hearing." The judge's decision about whether or not to place an abused or neglected child out of the home, or to make alternative treatment orders, is made in a separate hearing known as a dispositional hearing. A dispositional hearing is usually held at a later date.

Affidavit – A written statement signed in the presence of a Notary Public who "swears in" the signer. The contents of the affidavit are stated under penalty of perjury. Affidavits are frequently used in the initiation of Juvenile Court cases, and at times are presented to the Court as part of the evidence at a hearing.

Battered Child Syndrome – The combination of physical and other signs which indicate to medical professionals that a child has received injuries by other than accidental means. Variations of the term are also used in the field, including "Parent-Infant Trauma Syndrome" (PITS), or "Maltreatment Syndrome." In some states, the battered child syndrome has been judicially recognized as an accepted medical diagnosis, admissible as evidence.

Burden of Proof – The duty which falls on a party, usually upon the petitioner, of proving the allegations against a child or parent in a court trial. It is the petitioner's responsibility to prove the case; neither the child nor the parents has the duty to explain unproven allegations. See also Standard of Proof; and Res Ipsa Loquitur.

Central Registry – Records of child abuse and neglect reports compiled under state law or voluntary agreement among public agencies. New reports of suspected abuse are checked to determine whether prior reports have been received concerning the same child or parents. The purposes of central registries are:

(1) to alert authorities of prior incidents of abuse or neglect among families who resort to different doctors or hospitals each time a child is injured;

(2) to assist agencies in planning for abusive families; and

(3) to provide data for statistical analysis of child abuse.

Although access to registry records is usually restricted, critics warn of increasing loss of confidentiality. Many registries do not provide means for verification of reports or expunction.

Civil Proceeding – also called a "civil action", includes all lawsuits other than criminal prosecutions. Juvenile and Family Court cases are civil proceedings. See Standard of Proof.

Complaint –

(1) An oral statement, made usually to police, charging criminal, abusive, or neglectful conduct.

(2) A District Attorney's document which starts a criminal prosecution (also known in many states as an "information")

(3) A petitioner's document which starts a civil proceeding (in Juvenile or Family Court, the complaint is usually called a "petition").

Courts – There are a variety of courts involved with child abuse and neglect cases, partly because different states divide responsibility for certain proceedings among different courts, and also because tradition has established a variety of names for courts which perform similar functions. Child abuse reports can result in proceedings in all the following courts:

(1) Criminal Court – usually divided into circuit or district court (which handles felony cases) and police or justice court (which handles misdemeanors and the beginning stages of most felony cases);

(2) Domestic Relations Court – a civil court in which divorces and divorce custody hearings are held;

(3) Family Court – a civil court in some states which combines the functions of domestic relations, juvenile court, and probates court;

(4) Court of Conciliation – a branch of domestic relations courts in some states, usually staffed by counselors and social workers rather than by lawyers or judges, designed to explore and promote the reconciliation of divorcing parents;

(5) Juvenile Court – which has jurisdiction (legal power) over minors only, usually handling cases of suspected delinquency, status offenses, (e.g. runaways, children in need of supervision), and cases of suspected abuse or neglect. In many states, terminations of parental rights occur in juvenile court proceedings, while in other states such cases must be brought before another branch of the civil courts;

(6) Probate Court – which handles cases of Guardianship, Adoption, and estates of deceased persons.

Custody Hearing – A court hearing held to determine whether a minor should be kept away from his parents until a full trial of neglect, abuse, or delinquency allegations can be held. Custody hearings must usually be held within twenty-four hours of the filing of the abuse or neglect petition in any case in which the child previously has been placed in protective custody. See Protective Custody.

Disposition – The order of a Juvenile or Family Court which determines a treatment plan for a child, already proven to be abused or neglected. The main issue is usually whether the child should continue in or return to the parental home (and under what kind of supervision), or whether the minor should be placed out-of-home (and in what kind of setting: a relative's home, foster home, or an institution).

Dispositional Hearing – The Juvenile or Family Court hearing during which evidence is presented and arguments are made concerning the decision as to what should be done with a child already found to be abused or neglected. The dispositional hearing is usually held separately from the adjudicatory hearing.

Evidence – Any sort of proof submitted to a court for the purpose of influencing the court's decision. Some special kinds of evidence are

(1) Circumstantial evidence – proof of circumstances which may imply another fact. For instance, proof that a parent kept a broken appliance cord may connect the parent to infliction of unique marks on a child's body. A neighbor's testimony that he saw the parent strike the child with an appliance cord would be DIRECT EVIDENCE tending to prove the infliction. See also Res Ipsa Loquitur.

(2) Hearsay evidence – Testimony about an out-of-court statement made by someone other than the person testifying, and introduced into evidence in order to prove the truth of the matter asserted by that other person. For example, "I heard him say that the child had been left alone for ten hours." Normally, such a statement would not be permissible to prove the fact that the child had been left alone for ten hours. Instead, it would be necessary for the person who actually made the statement to testify personally in the case so the opposing attorney would be able to cross-examine and "test" the truth and/or accuracy of that statement. There are numerous exceptions to the Hearsay Rule, however. For example, admissions or confessions made by a parent in a child abuse and neglect case may be testified to by a witness who heard the statement.

(3) Opinion evidence – Although witnesses are ordinarily not permitted to testify to their beliefs or opinions (being restricted, instead, to reporting what they actually saw or heard), when a witness can be qualified as an expert on a given subject, he or she can report his or her conclusions (e.g. "Based upon these marks, it is my opinion as a doctor that the child was struck with a flexible instrument very much like this appliance cord.") Lawyers are also allowed to ask qualified experts "hypothetical question," in which the witness is asked to assume the truth of certain facts and express an opinion based on those "facts."

(4) Physical evidence or Real evidence – any tangible piece of proof, such as document, X-ray print, photograph of scars or bruises, appliance cord, or pistol.

Felony – A serious crime, for which the authorized punishment is imprisonment for longer than a year, and/or a fine greater than $1,000.00, distinguished from misdemeanor or infraction, both of which have lesser penalties.

Hearing Officer – The individual who presides at a judicial proceeding. The role of Judge is performed in some Juvenile Court hearings by Referees, Commissioners or Masters, whose orders are made in the name of the supervising Judge. The orders of a Referee or Commissioner may be rescinded by the supervising Judge after he/she has conducted a rehearing in the case.

Malice – The intentional doing of a wrongful act without justification with the intent to inflict an "injury" or "harm." Sometimes malice is inferred from the doing of an act which the actor reasonably should have known would produce injury or harm.

Misdemeanor – A category of crime, for which the authorized punishment is no more than one year imprisonment (usually in a county jail rather than a state prison) and/or a fine of $1,000.00. Distinguished from a felony, which has more serious penalties, and from an infraction, which has less serious penalties.

Petition – The document filed in juvenile or family court at the beginning of a neglect, abuse, or delinquency case. A copy of the petition must be delivered to specified members of the family involved. The petition sets forth the allegations which, if true, form the basis for court intervention.

Petitioner – In juvenile or family court practice, the agency or individual who files the petition. Depending upon state law or county practice, most child abuse and neglect petitions are filed by child protective services, the county prosecutor and/or the juvenile court probation department.

Placement – The removal of a child from his or her natural home, and placing him or her in a different custodial setting. Placement may be in a shelter home, foster home, group home, relative's home, or an institution. Juvenile or family courts sometimes place minors through their own staff, but usually commit delinquents or dependent children to other agencies for placement services.

Prima Facie – "on its face." A prima facie case is one which has been proven sufficiently to sustain the charges, unless the defendant or parent can produce evidence in rebuttal.

Protective Custody – In child abuse and neglect cases, refers to the emergency removal of a child from the custody of the parent(s) or caretaker(s). Protective custody is allowed only when a child is in imminent danger if he/she remains in the custody of his/her parent(s) or caretaker(s). Abused or neglected children placed in protective custody are usually taken to hospitals, shelter homes, foster homes, or juvenile halls pending the juvenile court hearings on the abuse or neglect petition.

Res Ipsa Loquitur – Literally, "The thing speaks for itself." A legal doctrine of evidence which changes the ordinary rules affecting the Burden of Proof (See Burden of Proof). It is used mainly in certain types of cases involving personal injury or property damage and has been applied by some courts to child abuse and neglect cases. When an injury occurs under circumstances which ordinarily indicate that someone must have been negligent or otherwise responsible for the injury, it becomes the legal duty of that person to prove that he or she was not, in fact, negligent. When a small child or infant suffers certain types of injuries which do not ordinarily occur if the parent or caretaker who has responsibility and control of the child is protective and nonabusive, application of the doctrine requires the parent or caretaker to adequately explain how the injuries occurred other than by abuse or neglect. The doctrine is used in some abuse and neglect cases where the

child victim is too young to testify and there are no eye-witnesses to the injurious conduct other than the parent or caretaker.

Social Study – The document prepared by a probation officer or social worker for the juvenile or family court hearing officer's consideration at the time of disposition of a case. This report addresses the minor's history and environment. These reports often contain material which would clearly be inadmissible in most judicial proceedings, either because of hearsay or lack of verification or reliability.

Standard of Proof (Quantum of Proof) – In different judicial proceedings there are varying requirements of proof. For example, in criminal prosecutions it is necessary for the state to prove the guilt of the accused "beyond a reasonable doubt." In child abuse and neglect cases in the juvenile or family courts, as in other civil proceedings, the petitioner (plaintiff) must prove the existence of abuse or neglect "by a preponderance of the evidence," a significantly less rigorous standard. The "preponderance of evidence," standard is often interpreted to mean that the judge or jury must believe that "it is more likely than not" that abuse or neglect proceedings is "clear and convincing evidence," a somewhat higher standard than "preponderance of evidence."

Stipulation – An agreement (sometimes oral, sometimes written) between the attorneys in a case which allows a certain fact to be established in evidence without the necessity of further proof. For example, the lawyers in a child abuse case may "stipulate" that the X-rays showed a fractured arm so that the radiologist would not have to be subpoenaed and testify.

Subpoena – A document issued by a court clerk, usually delivered by a process server, a child protective service worker, or a law enforcement officer to the person subpoenaed, requiring that persons appear at a certain court at a certain day and time, to give testimony in a specified case. Failure to obey a subpoena is punishable as contempt of court.

Subpoena Duces Tecum – A subpoena requiring the person subpoenaed to bring to court specified records if the records are within that person's control.

Summons – A document issued by a court clerk, usually handed, in person, to the person summoned, notifying that person of the filing of a lawsuit against him/her, and notifying that person of the deadline for answering the suit.

Compare Subpoena.

Voir Dire – "To speak the truth." The procedure during which lawyers question prospective jurors to determine their biases, if any. Also the procedure in which lawyers examine expert witnesses regarding their qualifications, before the experts are permitted to give opinion testimony.

Warrant – A document issued by a judge, authorizing the arrest or detention of a person, or the search of a place, and the seizure of specified items in that place.

The following lists were drawn from the publication Proceedings of the First National Conference on Child Abuse and Neglect, U.S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare. (DHEW Publication No. (OHD) 77-30094)

Nineteen questions that can give a cue that there might be a potential case of child abuse.

1. Does the mother have fun with the baby?
2. Eye contact with baby – direct in face position. Does mother establish this with infant?
3. How does mother talk to infant? Is everything she expresses a demand?
4. Are most of her verbalizations about the child negative?
5. Remains disappointed over sex of child.
6. What is the child's name? Where did it come from? What did they name the child?
7. Expectations far beyond child's developmental capabilities?
8. Is very bothered by crying. How does crying make the mother feel?
9. During feedings, is mother seeing baby as too demanding? Repulsed by messiness? Ignoring demand?
10. How is the task of changing diapers seen?
11. When the baby cries, can or does the mother comfort him?
12. What was/is the husband's and family's reaction to the baby?
13. What kind of support is the mother receiving?
14. Are there sibling-rivalry problems?
15. Is the husband jealous of the baby's drain on the mother's time and affection?
16. Concerning the mother control (or lack of control) over the office situation, does she get involved and take control over the baby's needs and what's going to happen (during exam and waiting room interaction)? Or does she relinquish control to the doctor, nurse, or someone else (undressing, holding, allowing child to express fear, etc.)?
17. Can attention be focused on the child in the mother's presence? Can the mother see something positive for her in that?
18. Are there non-existent complaints about the baby? For instance, the mother describes to you a type of child which you don't see. Or she calls with strange stories that the child

has, for example, stopped breathing, turns colors, is doing something "on purpose" to aggravate the parent.

19. Emergency calls for very small, not major things.

Ten warning areas in prenatal care indicative of a family's need for extra services are listed below.

1. Parent's overconcern with the baby's sex.
2. Parent's overconcern with the baby's performance; they worry that he/she will not be up to standard.
3. Mother's denial of the pregnancy (not willing to gain weight, no plans whatsoever, refusing to talk about the situation.)
4. Child is going to be one too many. Could he/she be the last straw?
5. Parent greatly depressed over pregnancy.
6. Mother is very frightened and alone, especially regarding physical changes in the delivery. Careful explanation does not dissipate the fears.
7. Mothers lack of support from husband and/or family.
8. Where are they living? Do they have a listed telephone? Are there relatives and friends around?
9. Did the mother or father formerly want the mother to have an abortion?
10. Have the parents considered relinquishment? If so, why did they change their minds?

Special Well-Child Care for High-Risk Families

1. Promote maternal attachment to the newborn.
2. Phone the mother on first two days at home.
3. Provide more frequent office visits.
4. Give more attention to the mother.
5. Emphasize nutrition.
6. Counsel discipline only around accident prevention.
7. Emphasize accident prevention.

8. Use compliments rather than criticism.

9. Accept phone calls at home.

10. Regular home visits by public health nurse or lay health visitor.

Notes on the Intervention Process

Rosie Lee C. Salinas

Contact

Factors identified in the publication Introduction to Social Work Practice by Max Siporin that motivate people toward seeking assistance with life functioning problems, such as abuse and neglect, were the following: a) belief that change is possible; b) the promise of relief from discomfort; c) reaction to outside constraints, for example, fear of losing a child; d) altruism or a desire for gain; e) the influence of a "leverage person" such as a skilled and knowledgeable practitioner with status. In the same publication, forces that motivate individuals to resist change were some of the following: a) reluctance to accept help; b) fear of losing status or resources; c) the belief that change is impossible; d) reluctance to devote time; and e) practical barriers such as lack of funds, time, physical health, etc.

Assessment

A good assessment calls for skills in questioning, observation, and fair use of existing materials on the client or clients. It is essential in this phase to have a clear statement of the problem with a good understanding of the client or client's functioning and ability within the analyzed life-functioning situation.

Contract

Competence in this area calls for the use of the child welfare worker's skill in establishing a meaningful verbal or written contract based on the purpose of the interactions agreed upon by him/her and the client system. The contract needs to be a consensual, mutual agreement with an acceptance of reciprocal obligations and responsibilities. A list of tasks with a timetable would help structure the future interactions of the worker and the client system.

The Social Work Relationship

It is essential that a good professional social work relationship be built from which effective interventions can be undertaken. Self awareness is basic to this relationship since variables such as the effect of the worker's past experience, his or her life situation, or his or her present physical and emotional state cannot be controlled without this awareness. Also the key to the relationship is the expression of concern for the client or clients conveyed through actions which show commitment, empathy, acceptance, and knowledge of the authority of the position held by the worker.

Intervention

Key actions often taken in a case of intervention with an abusing and/or neglecting family involve using knowledge, skills, and influence in order to restructure the family, help with conflict around social identity and role change, and arrange for placement in an institutional setting or foster home. Key words in the process are outreach, referral, follow-through, and advocacy.

Termination

This part of the total process of helping requires as much planning and concern as the other phases. At this point, evaluation of goals accomplished and of those not accomplished takes place. Preparation is made to end the social work relationship. In the action of transferring a case, the same process occurs.

OUTLINE OF PROBLEM-SOLVING MODEL – LONG FORM

I. Problem identification and definition

A. The problem as the client system sees it

1. Nature and location of need, lack, or difficulty

2. Significance and meaning assigned by the client system to the need, lack, or difficulty

3. Length of existence, previous occurrences, precipitating factors identified

4. Conditions that bring client system and worker into interaction at this time

5. Significance and meaning assigned by the client system to this interaction

B. The problem as defined by significant systems with which the client system is in interaction (family, school, community, others)

1. Nature and location of need, lack, or difficulty as seen by these systems

2. Significance and meaning assigned by these systems to this need, lack, or difficulty

3. Significance and meaning assigned by these systems to client's interaction with interventive agent

C. The problem as the worker sees it

1. Nature and location of need, lack, or difficulty

2. Precipitating factors that the client system knows about and believes to be related

3. Significance of conditions that bring client system and worker into interaction

4. Nature and degree of effort that client system has put into coping with problem and client system's feeling about such efforts

D. The problem-for-work (place of beginning together)

1. Problem or part of problem that the client system feels is most important or a good beginning place

2. Problem or part of problem that, in the worker's judgment, is most critical

3. Problem or part of problem that, in the worker's judgment, can most readily yield to help.

4. Problem or part of problem that falls within the action parameters of the helping system

II. Goal Identification

A. How does the client system see (or want) the problem to be worked out?

1. Short-term goals

2. Long-term goals

B. What does the client system think is needed for a solution to the problem?

1. Concrete resources

2. Specific assistance

3. Advice, guidance, or counseling

C. What does the client system seek and/or expect from the agency as a means to a solution?

1. Specific assistance (concrete service to enable the client system to do something)

2. Specific resources (concrete things)

3. Change in the environment or other social systems

4. Change in specific individuals

5. Advice or instruction

6. Support or reassurance

7. Change in self

8. Change in interaction between client system and others

D. What are the worker's goals as to problem outcome?

1. Long-term goals – are they different from client system's goals?

2. Short-term goals – are they different from client system's goals?

3. Does worker believe client system's goals to be realistic and acceptable?

4. What facilitating and intermediate goals can be identified?

5. Level of agreement between workers and client system on goals.

E. What does the worker believe the service system can or should offer the client to reach these goals?

1. Specific assistance

2. Specific resources

3. Change in the environment or other social systems

4. Advice or instruction

5. Support or reassurance

6. Change in self

7. Change in interaction between client system and others

III. Preliminary contract

A. Clarification of the realities and boundaries of service

B. Disclosure of the nature of further work together

C. Emergence of commitment or contract to proceed further in exploration and assessment in a manner that confirms the rights, expectations, and autonomy of the client system and grants the practitioner the right to intervene

Example of Juvenile Probation Case

March 6, 1979 – John B. was referred to this office as one of four teenagers involved in vandalizing school

March 9, 1969 – Mr. and Mrs. Raul B. brought their son for a conference, as he could not return to school until he had been evaluated by this office.

SUMMARY OF CASE

Mr. and Mrs. B. moved to Houston in December, 1968. John began school in January, 1969. He is sixteen years of age and is in the sixth grade. John is very tall for his age; he says he is at least a foot taller than any of his sixth grade classmates. His parents have moved often which caused him to change schools and consequently fail grades. He has two younger brothers who do not have problems in school and his parents constantly remind him of that. John has a job and works from the time he gets out of school until 1:00 a.m. He never has time to study. The B.'s moved to Houston from a rural area where John attended a school with a total population of 150.

After continued discussion, the parents advised me that they were unable to control their son. Mr. B. blamed his wife who immediately said to her husband, "I don't want him to grow up to be a failure like you are." This statement led to a heated discussion. It was revealed that Mrs. B. was a 39 year old devout Catholic, from a very wealthy family who had practically disowned her. Her family did not approve of her marriage to Mr. B., a 42 year old, Protestant, past migrant laborer, who met her working on her parents' ranch as a fieldhand. He has a sixth grade education. Mrs. B. left high school in her junior year to marry Mr. B. She was three months pregnant with John when she got married. She feels that her parents resent John, her son, because of this. She has tried to get Mr. B. to attend church; he refuses as he does not believe that a woman should "lead a man around by the nose." He advised me that Mrs. B. has never respected his judgment, nor is she sexually attracted to him. He has severe headaches and chest pains and sometimes his feet and hands swell. He has no job at the present time.

John had on two past occasions been reported for paint sniffing and running away. Both times he was not adjudicated but referred for counseling at the Child Guidance Center. Contact with Center Counselor indicated that John and his mother had attended two sessions.

John, when picked up, asked to discuss his unhappiness at home with a counselor and requested that he be placed in a home of a relative, an uncle. John, in this discussion, explained that his mother and father often fought. His father has begun drinking heavily on weekends and threatened to beat him. He explained that often he is left at home when the family goes out to movies, to visit friends, etc. He is required to give most of his earnings to pay for family expenses.

On April 7, 1977, Mr. Gonzales, an outreach worker for a state epilepsy agency, was contacted by Ms. Jean Holt, R.N. concerning the possible medication neglect of a small child. Ms. Hold was a public health nurse in charge of outlying county areas. She had been notified by the school system that Juanito Cruz, age 11, had been having regular seizure activity.

Mr. Gonzales was able to find out, through the school, that the family had just moved to the area from Idaho where they had been picking potatoes for the past six months. The family did not have a phone, but could be contacted through their employer.

Mr. Gonzales contacted Mr. Jim Wheeler, a prominent rancher in the area who grew cotton as his main support crop. Mr. Wheeler informed Mr. Gonzales that the family in question were part of his work group. The Cruz family, along with four other families, had recently arrived from Idaho. He advised Mr. Gonzales that he was not aware of the problem.

On April 8, 1977 (A.M.), Mr. Gonzales arrived at the Wheeler ranch to find Mrs. Cruz (age 39) and three of their children at home. Mrs. Cruz informed Mr. Gonzales that her husband was working. She usually worked too, but her son had been very sick and all she could do was rub him down with alcohol and pray over him. She said that the boy (Juanito) had been sick like that off and on since he was four years old. She had been to the doctor when he first started shaking and the doctor put him on medication. Mrs. Cruz said that they bought the medicine when they had the money and when they didn't he went without.

On April 8, 1977 (P.M.), the Cruz child was admitted to the emergency room. His condition was listed as fair, with severe seizure activity and high fever.

On April 9, 1977, Mr. Gonzales had gotten some background information on the Cruz family. Mr. Cruz (age 45) was born in a small rural town in Texas, he had a second grade education, but because of moving frequently, he had never learned to read or write. As far back as he could remember he and his family had done the same type of work in the fields. The Cruz's had been married twenty years and had ten children ranging from 19 to 7 years of age. Mr. Cruz stated that his son (Juanito) had had the same sickness he was real small. They were not sure what he had because those who first prescribed the medicine spoke no Spanish. It was all handled by sign language (hand shake or nodding head).

On April 10, 1977, Juanito's condition improved considerably with the fever coming down and the seizure subsiding. The doctor confirmed that the child had not been given adequate doses of medication and the medication being taken had been inadequate for his body weight.

On April 11, 1977, Juanito was released and the family was instructed on how to give medication and how to obtain medical assistance regularly for follow-up checks on medication in his blood system.

THE MESTIZO INTERVIEWER:

APPROPRIATE INTERVIEW METHODOLOGY

In reviewing reports of scientific investigations concerning "nuestra gente" (the Chicano/Mextizo people), it is easy to note that the major portion of interviewers lack the necessary understandings of the subtle, but significant behaviors on the part of the interviewer doing the questioning. Our language for example has an immense richness facilitating the distinctions between different levels of interpersonal so that by means of the words used, one can immediately note the different grades of social distance between two or more persons.

The Latin or Northamerican interviewer who is not cognizant of this reality fails before even starting his research — or perhaps better put such an interviewer will find himself at the periphery outside of the circle of confidence without being able to penetrate the inner core of the other.

Therefore, the interviewer needs to be aware that there is a necessary process, a necessary cultural-path, through which he must pass in the course of his research.

TEORIA EN PROCESO

This process has three principle levels which serve to indicate the quality of intimacy which exists between the interviewer and his interviewee. One can say that the two "estan hablando" or "estan conversando" or "estan platicando" (see Figure 1). And one can see further if the interviewer never passes from the "hablando" level to the "platicando" level one can conclude that his interviewer is detained at the perimeter of the interviewee and has failed to demonstrate the "cultural-syntony" necessary to penetrate the inner core in presence; the interviewer remains at the vestibule.

The basis for this conclusion is in the differentation in meanings of the above terms and their distinct connotations in the context of actual verbal relationships between individuals. For example, when one says "voy hablar con el" (I am going to speak with him), this demonstrates that the two are still at the formal social distance level — or better said they are at the "Ud." level ("usted" the formal pronoun "you" in Spanish).

When one says "voy a conversar con el" (I am going to converse with him) the social distance indicated is less but a sense of "formality" still prevails. The term "conversar" (to converse) indicates that the relationships between the principals involved remain somewhat formal — or better said the term indicates ambivalence in the relationship between the principals. This latter is especially true with regard to

the person who actually expresses the term "conversar". It indicates amvivalence in the speaker's mind. "Conversar" (to converse) can also be used by intimates who find themselves with problems in their relationships and who wish to discuss them objectively. Finally when the person says voy a platicar con el" (I will go to transact with him), one can immediately note that the principals are intimates and can speak frankly about what is personal.

The methodology of the interviewer must allow him, therefore, to pass from the formal level of "hablando" (speaking to) to the personal level of "platicando" (transacting) – that is if he expects to open up themes at the heart of the Mestizo culture. At the same time we must recognize that it is contrary to the Mestizo culture to expect the interviewer to arrive at complete intimacy in just one interview. (see Figure 2.) Yes, he can arrive at the level of "platicando", (intimacy, transacting), but this level in turn has many veils each one of which is to be drawn back in its own proper time. We can expect, though, that the interviewer will attain the level of "platicando" in terms of "harmony in the situation" by demonstrating "cultural-syntony" with the interviewee. Only over time can he teach that level of "platicando" which is attained on the basis of "harmony of environment" of values, attitudes and beliefs.

.1972 by Ray Valle

FIGURE 1. LEVELS OF INTERVIEWING

MODEL LEVEL	FORMALITY PREVAILS	AMBIVALENCE PREVAILS	INTIMACY ATTAINED
"Hablando" (Speaking to)			
"Conversando" (Conversing)			
"Platicando" (Transacting with)			

*There is no exact English equivalent. "Rapping" comes somewhat closer but still doesn't do the job.

FIGURE 2. THE MESTIZO INTERVIEWER UPON PLANNING THE "PLATICANDO" MODE OR LEVEL

	SITUATIONAL INTIMACY	ENVIRONMENTAL INTIMACY
Interviewer who demonstrates "cultural syntony" at the first interview	Si Pasa (Can enter)	No Pasa (cannot enter)
Interviewer who demonstrates "cultural syntony" over a period of time	Si Pasa (can enter)	Si Pasa (can enter)

INTERVIEWING*

Definition of Interviewing

An incipient interpersonal relation
Relationship developed from initial attraction – sentiment of liking

Levels of Interviewing

1) Hablando (speaking to) – formality prevails
2) Conversando (conversing) – ambivalence prevails
3) Platicando (transacting with) – intimacy attained

Recommendations of some Chicano social workers

1) Agency should be as informal as possible
2) Client should be able to select the language he wants to use during interview
3) Client can express his feelings and thoughts in the language in which he is most comfortable

To facilitate Platicando

1) First task is to build credibility with client
2) Develop the ability to give of one's self unselfishly
3) Be a good listener
4) Create a feeling of empathy, sincerity, honesty and courtesy
5) The importance of language must never be underestimated
6) Clients need to sense the worker's commitment to wanting to help them with their problems

Cultural Syntony

Occurs at the platicando level of interviewing
Both persons are demonstrating a sense of intimacy in which one can speak about what is personal
Both persons are relating to each other from the same cultural frame of reference and this creates a state of equilibrium in which they can openly relate to each other.

TENTATIVE PLAN FOR IMPLEMENTATION OF COURSE CONTENT

CLASS SESSIONS: 16

Unit I THE INFORMAL HELPING SITUATION

September 5 (IA)

a) Orientation to goals and purpose of class

b) Group processing: (using newsprint exercises)
- who are participants
- what field do they plan to pursue
- the major things you would like to learn from this course

c) Overview of course and rationale for it being offered

d) Overview of the heterogenity of the Mexican American people

e) Some basic definition of Chicano terminology to be used out this course.

September 12 (IA, IB 1, 2, 3)

a) Examination of Barrio as a Social Institution

b) Examination of Barrio as an Internal Colony

c) La Familia: Traditional values vs stereotypes

d) Movie: Chicanos From the Southwest – open discussion

September 19 (IB 2b, 3a, 3b)

a) The changing roles within la familia and its effect on children

b) El Tejido – a Webwork of Self-help
- communication in barrio settings
- assumptions about familia coping/survival mechanisms

c) Movie: Chicano – open discussion

September 26 – Chicano-oriented Panel (4 persons)

"Survival Skills of La Familia Chicana"

Format: 15-20 minute presentations followed by open discussion

1. Cultural Identity
2. The Life Experience of a Migrant: In Retrospect
3. Life Expereince of Growing Up in the Inner City
4. Violence As a Part of Barrio Family Life

UNIT II ABUSE AND NEGLECT DEFINED

October 3 (IIA 1, 2, 3)

a) Discuss characteristics of abusive parents and abused children

b) Discuss characteristics of neglecting parents and neglected children

c) Examine family dynamics in abused and neglected cases

d) Discussion on the Texas Family Code

e) Movie: Child Abuse:

October 10 (IIA 1, 2, 3)

a) Further discussion of the Texas Family Code

b) Modalities of family counseling

c) Individual Case Studies and analysis

d) Movie: Fragile Handle with Care – open discussion

October 17 (IIA 1, 2, 3)

a) Discuss the rights, privileges and responsibilities of children and parents

b) Abuse and neglect among adolescents and its relationship to delinquent behavior

c) Discussion of the Texas Youth Council System

d) Movie: Working Together

October 24 (IIB 1, 2)

a) Abuse and neglect in the Mexican American community
   — as defined in literature
   — culture as a variable in assessment
   — societal factors that contribute to child abuse and neglect among migrant Mexican American — use Manual by Becker

b) View and have in-depth analysis of "El Juanio"

October 31 Abuse and Neglect Oriented Panel (4 Presentators)

1. MANCO
2. TEEN PARENT NETWORK
3. MHMR CHILDREN's SERVICES UNIT
4. PARENTS ANONYMOUS

Unit III TRADITIONAL CHILD WELFARE SYSTEM AND SELF HELP NETWORK

November 7 (IIIA)

a) Overview of the historical development of the traditional system of Child Welfare

b) Today's Child Welfare System: An organizational model

c) Analysis of how and where abused and neglected children get help in San Antonio at the present

November 14 (IIIB) (prior to this session student site visits will occur)

a) Culturally sensitive programs geared towards helping Mexican American children who are abused or neglected

b) In depth discussion of site visit to Escuelita Del Sol

c) In depth discussion on site visit to Inman Christian Center

November 28 Welfare System Oriented Panel
Format: 4 presentors 20—30 presentations

1. Administrator DHR Child Welfare Unit

2. Representative from the Medical Community

3. Staff Member of Texas Migrant Council

4. Psychiatric child care worker

November 21: Thanksgiving Holidays

UNIT IV THE INTERVENTION PROCESS

December 5 (IV A)

a) In depth discussion of the intervention process in child abuse and/or neglect cases in the Mexican American community

1. assessment

2. contract/intervention

3) termination

b) Barriers to real communication

c) Critique Becker Manual on Migrant Child Abuse

December 12 (IV B)

a) View videotaped interviews of two child welfare cases and discussion

b) Discuss documentation: Legal Issues and Ethical Issues

December 19 REVIEW AND ASSESSMENT

1. Review major topics discussed during course

2. Review definitions of key concepts

3. Distinguish factors unique to working with Mexican American child welfare cases and/or migrant child welfare cases

4. Review learning promoted by movies viewed in class

5. Assess if goals of course have been met

6. Assess if personal goals for class were met

7. Assess personal growth and self-awareness of issues relating to child abuse and neglect in the Mexican American Community.

SOCIAL WORK 4380
Class Presentation – September 19, 1979
Presentor: Sra. Celestina Contreras

Sra. Contreras came to our class to share some of her experiences growing up as a migrant. She traveled in the migrant stream from 1946-1966. She has written a book about her experiences which is being titled Northitis in the Spring.

Some of the personal things she shared about her family were:

- she married at age 15
- she had 10 children
- she and her husband took their children with them when they migrated
- they traveled in groups of about 20, many of whom were relatives
- migrant lifestyle is generational

Her descriptions of the migrant life were:

- great deal of familial love
- it's a way of life
- there is closeness in family life
- there is an enjoyment of travel
- children can feel that togetherness, they feel needed

Her statements relating to children were:

- migrant life can be fun for children, the only negative feelings she could remember were from teachers

- migrant children are task-oriented and grow up having ambition

- during 20 years that she worked as migrant she never saw any child abuse. Child neglect depends on definition of neglect. Some of the neglect she recalled resulted from farmers not providing adequate facilities for residents. (Example: child almost being electrocuted by exposed wires in house provided by farmer)

- children were taken out of school early (April) and came back late (Nov.). Children expressed no negative feelings about this change in regular school routine. There was some feeling of resentment when migrant classes were started because this did seem to negatively reflect on the migrant child.

Sra. Contreras' Philosophy on Education as it relates to migrants:

IF CHILDREN ARE GIVEN ATTITUDE THAT EDUCATION IS IMPORTANT, MISSING OUT ON TWO MONTHS WILL NOT AFFECT THEIR LEARNING.

SOCIAL WORK 4380
Class Presentor: Rose Rosales, Organizer for MANCO
Date of Presentation: September 26, 1979

TOPIC: VIOLENCE AND ITS EFFECT ON LA FAMILIA

Ms. Rosales identified several factors which contribute towards the occurence of violence in the barrio. Among the factors are:

(1) poor economic status of residents

(2) employment situation

a. SA is a cheap labor town
b. it has a high rate of unemployment
c. it is known for its seasonal work

(3) social conditions-drug problems

(4) lack of control of institutions at the decision-making level

Historically the family and the culture have been identified as the repressing force that keeps La Raza from moving ahead. The concept of machismo has been given a totally negative meaning by Anglo sociologists. The macho is not reflected in the literature.

Violence in the barrios is physical and psychological. The psychological violence is inflicted in the school and in employment.

The dominant culture loves the ways in which our culture enjoys itself – mariachis, fiestas, etc.; but does not care that much about the conditions under which we live.

EXAMPLE OF PHYSICAL VIOLENCE:

In California five Mexican American women have sued the state because they were sterilized without their consent or knowledge when they gave birth in county hospitals. There are a significant number of minority women who have had similar experiences.

Other subtle ways of inflicting violence on La Familia

(1) institutional racism
(2) urban renewal: displacing people
(3) exclusion

Other social problems inflicting violence on La Familia

(1) alienation among youth leads to drugs
(2) wife beating

(3) child abuse
(4) desertion
(5) high drop out rate: problem with parents and schools not sensitive to needs of children

WELFARE: A METHOD FOR CONTAINING THE POOR? KEEPING THEM POWERLESS

ONE POSSIBLE SOLUTION

Formation of a strong based organization that will focus on rights. It will work on developing growth among its members. It would promote fighting back legally.

Overview of MANCO's programs

Crime Watch: over a one year period 6% decrease in crime has been seen Proposal when being implemented had to be modified to accomodate the reality of Chicano community.

Drug Prevention Project

Drug Treatment Project: Myra Pryon House – Treatment facility for boys

OBSERVATIONS OF WOMEN AND THEIR CHANGING ROLE

To change the role of LA MUJER it is essential that she join the work force.

The impact of being self-supporting provides for her psychological growth. It provides for enhancement of her self-esteem and self-image.

Ms. Rosales indicated that she places a high priority on counseling women to enter the labor force as a means of increasing their sense of control over their own destiny.

MOVIE: YO SOY CHICANO (part 2)

This movie focuses on the lack of power and control which Chicanos have over their own destiny. It reflects that discrimination has persisted since even before the Treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo in 1846.

There are several powerful interviews with some Raza Unida leaders who speak to the philosophy of cultural pride and self-determination.

CHILD ABUSE AND NEGLECT IN THE MEXICAN AMERICAN FAMILY

1. Term paper, 4-6 pages in length, of a special focus topic relating to child abuse and neglect.
2. Oral presentation related to term paper reflecting on the findings of your research. (Not to be the reading of the paper)
3. One-hour presentation on a special-focus topic related to child abuse and neglect, particularly as seen in the Mexican American Community.
4. Completion of a multiple-choice examination.
5. One hour presentation on the historical evolution of services to children, with special focus on programs addressing child abuse and neglect.
6. One hour presentation that would be the sharing of personal experiences of having grown up as a migrant.
7. Develop a scrapbook that would be a collection of articles and clippings related to child abuse and neglect that would relate to the time period of the course (Sept-Dec 79). It would have to reflect extensive researching of the literature and newspapers.
8. Utilize video taping equipment to record interviewing role playing to demonstrate working with abusing or neglecting parents.
9. Four readings (1 per unit) with written summaries and evaluations to share with the group in open discussions.
10. A creative project of your choice related to child abuse and neglect, particularly with a focus on the Mexican American.

Please review this list of alternative assignments and try to select the one(s) that you feel would most add to your learning experience in the course. If clarification is needed, please discuss it with me prior to making your selection. In instances where you will be making oral presentations, the best data and time slot will have to be selected to interrelate it to course content.